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ABSTRACT

Focusing on adult education in Yugoslavia, this book is part of the series on adult education in Europe. The first of eight sections, traces historical development of adult education in Yugoslavia beginning with the second half of the nineteenth century and focusing on promotion of political awareness and socio-political education of the working class following World Wars I and II. Section 2 presents the social requirements, determining features, and structure of the educational system including ideological prerequisites based on Marxist philosophy. The third section describes the organization of schools for adults--independent institutions formed for remedial or vocational teaching. Sections 4 through 6 describe the relatively well-established, systematic formas of adult educaiton in the post-revolutionary period. Section 4 describes adult studies at Yugoslav universities including general trends and the development of part time studies. The fifth section focuses on the development and curricula of worker's and people's universities fomed in the 1940s and 1950s for general socio-political education and vocational training. Educational centers and other institutional forms of perservice and further vocational training are described in section 6. The seventh section presents rationale and description of adult education which operates outside the framework of established adult education institutions in such socio-political organizations as The Socialist Workers' Union, Trade Unions, the Youth Organization, the Union of Anti-Facist Fighters, and the Red Cross. The final section gives basic trends in the reform of the educational system in Yugoslavia. (LRA)

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ADULT EDUCATION IN YUGOSLAVIA

Studies and Documents No. 4

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1. THE HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF ADULT EDUCATION

The Early Period of Development

The first establishments concerned with adult education came into existence in the second half of the 19th century, at a time when the limited capacity of the then spontaneous and largely unsystematic adult learning could hardly meet the rising needs and requirements of the day. Adult education in the period of national revival covered a broad range of activities associated first and foremost with popular education. With the emergence of special establishments teaching programmes acquired a new degree of specificity and concreteness.

A comparison of adult education in this country with similar developments abroad reveals the early history of establishments of this type in Yugoslavia since a number of centres of adult education date back to the end of the 19th century. One could go as far as maintaining that as an organized and specifically cooperative-based activity adult education in Yugoslavia has been in existence for at least 150 years. Objective social needs and conducive conditions provided by the state account for the ultimate attainment of objectives and ideals inspiring the early endeavour of a number of our thinkers and revivalists.

Workers' societies for education and popular-cultural societies, which came into existence in the second half of the 19th century, played a role of special significance in the organizational context of activities associated with adult education. In Slovenia, the first societies of this type came into being as early as 1867, in Croatia in 1870 and in Serbia in 1881. The teaching programmes followed the line of popular education and were largely political in bias. Most of these societies displayed a socialist orientation. Education was combined with entertainment and cultural events specially designed to foster national awareness within the broad ranks of the population,

above all within the ranks of the working class. In Macedonia, the first workers' society was founded in 1894, in Bosnia and Herzegovina in 1903.

The impact of capitalism, which gradually made itself felt in all regions of Yugoslavia, resulted in more severe exploitation and accelerated the working class struggle. Growing in scope and format, the working class movement accentuated its ideological demands and intensified the drive for workers' education.

The libraries and reading rooms and the various societies concerned with popular culture operating in towns and cities covered a spectrum of activities of popular culture and education. The "rivalry" between different societies as well as other features characterizing the period are well-known.

One of the first reading rooms in active use was attached to the People's Library in Belgrade between 1832 and 1855. In 1855, reading rooms operated in almost every district town. In 1869 alone more than 30 reading rooms were opened for the public throughout Serbia.

After 1820, reading rooms in Slovenia and Croatia played an important role in the "Illyrian" movement and the promotion of national awareness. This was the guiding principle leading to the establishment of reading rooms in Croatia, in Varaždin (1836), Karlovac and Zagreb (1838), in Barka (1839) etc. The first reading room in Slovenia was founded in Radgon in 1930, in Maribor (1847), Ljubljana, Celovec, Trieste and Gorica (1849).

By the end of the 19th century there were 100 reading rooms in Croatia, 77 in Slovenia and 6 in Montenegro. With the growth of literacy, reading rooms became a feature rapidly spreading throughout the country.

Adult education in the form practised by workers' societies lacked an adequately planned and systematic framework, one which would provide a reliable basis for vocational training and certain types of functional instruction. The objectives of workers' education were still largely coextensive with the time-honoured cultural aims of the

bourgeois class. They still could not outstep the restricted framework of activities geared towards offsetting the needs and ambitions of the population. The teaching programmes did not proceed from an analysis of the actual needs of the working class, were far too general in conception or downright failed to reflect the specific requirements of the locality to offer something more than just popular culture. The fact that a number of outstanding intellectuals (writers, university professors, doctors and other public figures) joined some of these societies as active members was drowned in the amorphous pool of general cultural education.

Workers' education had not yet crystallized as a specific field of adult education. In addition to adult education practised in towns and industrial localities, another field of activity emerged in *farmers' education*. Agriculture was the principal area of production. Its development was accelerated but also curbed by the social order of the day. Farmers still represented the predominant section of the country's population. In those parts of Yugoslavia where the school system was more advanced, young people in rural areas had to attend remedial schools after completing basic education. These schools were designed to revise and broaden the knowledge acquired at primary schools, especially with regard to subjects bearing on agriculture. Thus, according to the "General Decree on Schools" issued in Slovenia in 1774, such schools were to cover young people up to the age of 20 (2 hours weekly) insofar as they did not attend secondary schools. Such youngsters were clearly in the minority. Remedial schools grappled with a number of difficulties since educational standards at primary level left much to be desired. In most cases, the youngster left school depending on the goodwill of the teacher.

Gradually, longer supplementary courses of training were organized to offset the needs of adult education in the field of agriculture. In 1865, 91 such schools operated in Slovenia In the early seventies of the last century, this type of education began to gain ground throughout Yugoslavia in a variety of forms of farmers' education. Schools of this type enlisted the help of different visiting instructors and advisers in the field of education. A few years later, special agricultural schools were set up.

Farmers' education was the primary concern of school teachers. Special courses of supplementary training were organized for teachers to prepare them for teaching assignments at schools attended by farmers, despite the fact that these teachers did not specialize in agriculture. Teaching subjects relevant to agriculture, animal husbandry, fruit cultivation and bee-keeping was considered an integral part of the teacher's normal teaching load. In the period under review, such teaching posts were mostly held by men rather than women. Women teachers instructed farmers' wives on correct methods of farm work, handwork, care for ill and newly-born children, general hygiene, etc. The first systematic linkage of production and adult education was thus effected on a planned organizational basis and in a variety of forms.

As is evident, the teachers themselves attended various supplementary training courses as early as the end of the 19th century. In this way, they were trained as primary proponents of adult education within the broadest sections of the population. Teachers' associations organized different supplementary courses and seminars for their membership. In the period under consideration, all these activities were part of adult education. This also represented the first profession ensuing from the supplementary training individual members received according to practical needs and requirements.

Two tendencies are discernible in this initial period of adult education. The concentrated effort apparent in the field of workers' education was a natural corollary of the development of productive forces and production relations, the logical outcome of progress. There was no conscious guiding force behind these activities and their operational range still lacked a more precise delimitation. The same applies to the lack of definite objectives; the process simply reflected a nascent phenomenon.

On the other hand, farmers' education adhering to more specific goals was governed by efforts envisaging a new degree of improvement and perfection in the already established, traditional pattern of production. The objectives of farmers' education, remarkably well-defined and controlled, centred on the immediate requirements of farming. Farmers' education pursued clear economic objectives, re-

ceiving the support and backing of the entire society. In contrast, workers' education was implemented in a way reflecting a completely new development defying conventional forms of life and expressing the new aspirations of the proletariat. Workers' education in those days was less bound to actual work.

Unfortunately, it is impossible at this point of the discussion to analyze in greater detail all the tendencies affecting the historical period under consideration. All we could do was to single out some of the major starting points of the institutionalization process.

The First Schools for Adult Education and People's Universities

As specific institutions, people's universities came into being at the turn of the century and in particular, after World War I. The first people's university was the Citizens' University of Zagreb, founded in 1907. This was followed by the foundation of the People's University in Karlovac in 1910. World War I obstructed the further development of these institutions. People's universities multiplied after 1918. At that time, they became a feature characterizing almost all major cities. In 1930 there were about 50 people's universities in Yugoslavia and their number was steadily rising up to the outbreak of World War II. Rapid development s a significant feature of the immediate post-war period. Since 1947, 886 people's universities have operated throughout Yugoslavia and the number of students has amounted to 2.5 million, out of the total national population of 20 million.

It was only after 1950 that people's universities began to develop on a more systematic basis. The country's rural population declined but the number of industrial workers was steadily increasing. The changing pattern of manpower boosted the number of workers' universities and their students at the expense of people's universities. This upward trend was gaining in prominence with every passing year. Workers' universities, displaying good inner organizational standards, rapidly became the focus of adult education. This accounts for the strict control imposed on these universities under the political regime of the day. The decision adopted in 1932 placed all aspects of their activity under ministerial control.

People's universities endeavoured to provide broader knowledge relevant to a variety of areas to keep the wide sections of the population well-informed. The list of lecturers included a number of distinguished scholars, professors and artists. Gradually, however, due to the poor educational standards of the masses, education displaying such "breadth" became accessible to only a restricted number of people and began to drift away from the actual problems of the rural population. Even so, education of this type was adapted to comply far more with the requirements of the agricultural workforce than with the problems of the working class. With no perceptible change these establishments continued to exercise their role up to the revolutionary period in Yugoslavia's development.

The period characterized by the sporadic rise of individual institutions for adult education (1820-1870) was also one that saw the foundation of the first schools for adults. These schools, representing a fully-fledged counterpart to ordinary schools, extended their operation even to the less developed areas of the educational system. The first schools of this type were Sunday schools, schools associated with remedial teaching and, later on, vocational schools. Specializing in chemistry, the school founded at Trieste in 1848, can be considered the first of its kind in Yugoslavia. A similar school was opened in Ljubljana in 1850. In 1860, a school of forestry and economic management was set in operation at Križevci. There were also two schools offering two-year courses of study in the field of milk and dairy industry. Special schools for women were founded to provide essential instruction in household work.

After World War I, schools for adults resumed operation first in Slovenia (1922), then - following the 1929 Act on Popular Education - throughout Yugoslavia.

The Promotion of Political Awareness and the Socio-Political Education of the Working Class

Progressive tendencies within the ranks of the working class found their expression in the great constructive effort of the Communist Party, determined to promote and extend, on the broadest possible

scale, all the relevant forms of adult education. The primarily objective underlying the variety of short-term and long-term educational activities in the form of political and ideological instruction, training courses, individual lectures and the joint study of party documents and Marxist literature as practised in different circles, etc. was to foster the people's political awareness. Due to the fact that the party had to operate underground, adult education was largely confined to individual study and self-instruction. This form of education proved viable only because Communist Party members, as well as other members of the Yugoslav national community, showed profound interest in acquiring new knowledge. Genuine commitment spurred on their quest for truth. Adult education was practised under the most difficult of conditions (the term "prisoners' university" fittingly describes the facts and realities of the period).

In the course of the national liberation struggle and the revolution, adult education consolidated its action basis and began to draw in an ever-broadening section of the masses. Though arduous, the road to integrity proved ultimately successful. Adult education developed a variety of forms and media. For the first time in the country's history, adult education involved the participation of the mainstream of social forces united in the common endeavour to promote progress within the working class and the agricultural population, to encourage the Marxist world outlook, revolutionary militancy, creativity and initiative, to further the awareness of the broad strata of the population with regard to their social position and role in the progress of building a new society. Education acquired a new social function. For the first time in the history of our andragogic practice, adult education became an integral part of the class struggle - a specific goal-oriented social force. The new social function assigned to education replaced the one-time function involving no more than the conservation and perpetuation of the traditional pattern of practices favouring popular culture, general education and farmers' education ("the conservation or reproductive function of education"). In the struggle for the transformation of society, education acquired its "innovation functions". The Marxist approach to adult education received its organizational form prior to corresponding applications in the field of pedagogy, which began to develop on a large scale immediately after the end of the war.

The efforts of the Communist Party exerted to shape the socio-political development of adult education provided an immediate basis for the constitution of the post-war system of adult education.

Immediately after the end of World War II, socio-political education covered a wide-ranging programme, primarily through specific forms of mass-oriented education. Vocational adult training and education gradually specified their goals and objectives and dissociated themselves from the influence of the trend favouring popular culture, a trend which used to characterize andragogic practices in the past. In the first post-war years, vocational adult training became differentiated organizationally and institutionally, first and foremost within the framework of different establishment in the field of popular culture. The process continued throughout the period when the drive for vocational training and education had not yet gathered momentum.

Popular educational activities involving the masses and political agitation had already gained ground during the war. These activities were formulated as a special requirement in all the major documents relating to the period of the national liberation struggle and received explicit mention in the Resolutions of the 1st Session of AVNOJ in 1942.

Educational activities of this type reached their climax in the meetings, speeches, lectures, conferences and improvised briefings organized on the liberated territory of Yugoslavia. As to their programme, such educational activities can be divided into literacy courses and political education. In Croatia, 150 literacy courses were organized in 1943, while in 1944 the total number of such courses exceeded 250. New houses of culture were built on the liberated territory of Yugoslavia, while those already in existence extended their premises. Apart from these developments, a further example of such initiative is furnished by the library and reading room at Lika, which operated throughout the war.

2. THE SOCIAL REQUIREMENTS, DETERMINING FEATURES AND STRUCTURE OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

The revolutionary changes implemented in our country, Yugoslavia's orientation to accentuating rapid industrial and economic development and the construction of a more just social order created preconditions for a viable development of the system of adult education. Adult education became one of the functions of this new forward-looking course as well as its powerful prerequisite. This accounts for the fact that in the early postwar years adult education, developing far less along the lines of the "general movement" for the promotion of popular culture within the masses, was gradually losing the character of popular cultural activities and became a rallying standard for the country's potential forces; deliberately shaped and directed on a controlled basis, adult education thus increasingly acquired the character of a well-defined system. Adult education was expected to anticipate progress both in its qualitative and quantitative aspect, while bringing its course to a logical conclusion. This was to be achieved through organizational standards and good results conducive to the promotion of contemporary social, economic, scientific, technological and cultural development.

All this determined the need to channel and organize the broadly-based movement involving thousands of teachers and enthusiasts associated in dozens of different organizations after the revolution. The system of adult education became the subject of numerous discussions as well as the central topic of a number of international gatherings organized in Yugoslavia.[1/] In due time, the concept of the system

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[1/] These included, for instance, the international seminar on the system of adult education, held under the auspices of UNESCO in Opatia in 1964. Prior to this event, the system of adult education figured on the agenda of the international seminar on adult education in Rieka in 1956 and was discussed on several occasions within the framework of consultative meetings during the summer school of andragogues organized at Poreč, etc.

received a more detailed elaboration along with the consolidation of its foundations, determining features and structural elements. The current stage of the process is characterized by gradual transition to new approaches which brought a marked degree of improvement into the theory and practice of education in Yugoslavia. It should be stressed that the continuing aim was to ensure the constitution of a system of adult education, envisaged not as an immanent system isolated from the education of the young generation, although these characteristics were attendant upon the initial stage of development.

Ideological Prerequisites and Determining Features of the System

The basic orientation adhered to throughout the process of building up the new system highlighted the primary goal of adult education in Yugoslavia. Proceeding from the basic tenet of Marxist philosophy, i.e. the need for an all-round development of man's personality, the ultimate objective placed special emphasis on the need for creativity, active approach and communication as well as continuity in the development of man's personality, a factor constituting the fundamental precondition for the construction of a new, socialist, self-governing community. This accounts for the fact that as early as the 1960s Yugoslavia adopted the conception of a comprehensive, developmental, life-long and functional process of education designed to ensure the unity of education and instruction in a way meeting both individual and social requirements.

The analysis and constitution of the system of adult education proceeded from the basic features determining a truly modern system of education and instruction. The following features are regarded as basic: general development of productive forces and social relations as well as other achievements of contemporary mankind especially in the field of science, technology, culture and education; new social relations and society's leading ideology expressed the objectives and endeavour of the working class and the most progressive social forces; the development of science and technology and their applications in the country; the country's demographic and economic structure; cultural traditions and achievements and the "capacity" for education and culture (objects, cadres, etc.). Under Yugoslav con-

ditions, all these factors displayed the following major characteristics: the rise of new forms of socialist social relations based on self-administration; the country's fast rate of economic development under the conditions of an insufficiently developed economic basis; the relatively rapid rate of change observable in the demographic-economic structure of the population and the accelerated process of urbanization; substandard educational structure of the population and relatively low cultural standards.

The new pattern of social relations based on self-adminstration exercised a significant degree of influence on a number of other factors and called forth further changes not only in the content-structure basis of the system but also in the functioning of all other factors and exponents of the system.

Principles of the Construction of the System

These ideological prerequisites, determining features and, above all, educational goals of our society provided the starting point for the formulation of principles governing the constitution of the system. In the final analysis, these entailed principles representative of the ideological heritage of the progressive forces of contemporary mankind (the principle of democracy, the principle of unity of the system, etc.). In Yugoslav conditions, such principles acquired a special significance. Since its very inception, the process of consolidation of the principle of democracy proceeded from the need to create a system of education and instruction generally accessible to all citizens, a system open to all sections of the population. The principle of the unity of a system involving a unified process of education of youth and adults highlighted the necessity of a concurrent rise of establishments for youth as well as all relevant forms of adult education. It became clear that the system must be constructed in a way which would ensure it to be operational on both the horizontal and the vertical level. Consequently, the principle accentuating the life-long aspect of education has been implicit in the system right from the outset. Insistence on this principle was a feature which retained its validity throughout the further stages of the process during which the construction of the system reached completion.

Equally significant was the adoption of the principles of flexibility and dynamic adaptability, which reflect the fact that a system expressing all relevant social and individual requirements is consistently adapted to comply with such requirements. Another principle adopted concerned the multifactor character of the system, i.e. the fact that the system of education is relevant to all factors of society and that under Yugoslav conditions, it is imperative to ensure specific ways and means of incorporating into the system the influence exercised by workers' organizations, the influence of social organizations, information centres and cultural establishments - briefly, all factors operating within the socio-political community.

Although these principles were adopted twenty years ago, it must be admitted that the constituion of the system of adult education progressed slowly in practice. Institutions and organizations for adult education have not yet been brought on a par with the regular school system. This applies both to society's commitment in this sphere, in material resources as well as to the verification of the results attained. Adult education is not covered by the same financial resources as other educational agencies, i.e. it is not financed on the basis of results obtained, from students' contributions or the sums paid out for the services by workers' organizations. The only sphere where progress has so far been recorded is basic adult education, financed by the community itself. Even the verification of the results of education is mostly conducted at the internal level, whereas external verification is confined to education within the framework of systematic forms. There was even a period in the history of our adult education when establishments in this field had to rely on their own resources without any major social backing. All this led to a situation in which the system could not acquire a sufficiently democratic character and could not become equally accessible to all sections of the population. Instead of the safe functioning of a unified state system deformations occurred in the relatively independent system of adult education.

In view of the weaknesses and shortcomings of the situation described above, the endeavour exerted since the mid-1970s has concentrated on the attainment of unity and the provision of more favourable con-

ditions for democracy. In the context of operational criteria, which viewed the system of education and instruction as a system of educational institutions with schools in the lead, such unity was in fact unattainable. The first major step in this direction was taken in 1970 in the form of the All-Union resolution on the development of education on a self-governing basis. The resolution stresses the new approach to the system: it should not operate as a system of institutions but as a system adhering to a programme or to specific levels of the educational programme. It is irrelevant in which field of activity (schools, workers' universities, centres for adult education, self-instruction, etc.) such programme is implemented. What is decisive are the results attained or, rather, that content, teaching programmes and curricula represent a specific level of education. In this sense, for the first time in Yugoslavia's history, educational goals for adults and youth are formulated on a common basis.

Further development bears the imprint of strivings ensuing from the actual dualism and the broader scope of democratization. This, however, could not have been attained without a more thorough reform of the entire system, especially the system of secondary school education. In 1974, the supreme bodies and socio-political authorities decided to launch a basic reform of the system; this initiated a period of intensive work on the project which is still in progress. The results achieved and the different trends underlying the quest for new approaches which have not yet become an integral part of the systematic structure will be discussed in the concluding sections of this outline.

The Structure of the System

The post-war orientation in which the field of adult education relied on the existing system of schools and other institutions open to adults wishing to acquire specific knowledge and valid qualifications, continued through the subsequent period up to the present. In the initial period, adults enrolled for study at schools for the young generation to acquire certain qualifications (primary, secondary and university qualifications) in compliance with the same or modified curricula, primarily from the point of view of application, and obtained

diplomas and certificates equal to those given to young school leavers and graduates. It soon became apparent that such traching programmes could hardly meet the requirements of adults and since only schools had the right to issue certificates, special schools (or departments attached to ordinary schools) were set up for adults. The largest number of such schools operated at the primary level but they also emerged at the secondary level. Workers' schools at a higher level came into existence. These schools dovetailed secondary general education with the specific needs of workers' organizations, especially in the field of self-administration. Then, there were two-year schools for workers who, due to long-standing production practice, proved their abilities and needed supplementary training prior to assuming leading functions in production, such as production manager, production engineer, etc. Later on, special schools were likewise set up for workers in other areas of social import (e.g. university colleges of economy, commerce, administration, personnel management, political science, etc.). Although their number had been gradually reduced in the years that followed, such schools are still in existence, One can claim that the type of organization represented by schools of this kind continues to operate as one the basic subsystems in the field of adult education.

The second line of development in the system of adult education gave a new lease of life to the tradition of mass-oriented adult education. The process of institutionalization is guided towards increasing the efficiency of the role played by people's universities and later on workers' universities. These establishments developed into major centres of mass-oriented popular education. In the period immediately following World War II, a number of people's universities came into existence, and - in the second half of the 1950s - numerous workers' universities were established. Despite the strong emphasis on workers' education, the two types of university have never attained a more significant degree of mutual differentiation. Both of them promoted a variety of forms of popular education (courses, seminars, lectures, cultural activities, etc.). This accounts for the common orientation, a feature retained up to the present day. True, some of the major people's universities or workers' universities also promoted different forms of systematic education, and shaped, through their

structure, individual schools equal in status to other schools. This included the same system of certificates but the majority of the corresponding forms remained officially unrecognized so that in their totality they were not integrated within the existing school system. The problem of verification in these establishments has retained its relevance even today and often fuels discussions in the current process of the reform of the system. This applies first and foremost to those forms of systemic education in which verification cannot be restricted to a specific school or any other institution which had gradually obtained the right to issue certificates. Some of these forms of education are recognized internally by working organizations (they may even act as guarantors of specific teaching programmes) but even then there are still a good many forms of education (with a duration encompassing several months) where external recognition presents an open problem. All this obstructs a more viable integration of workers' and people's universities into the state-controlled system of education, although predictably they will have to continue functioning as exponents of the broadest, formally unrecognized type of education.

The third trend in Yugoslavia's adult education involves education practised within production organizations. With the rising urgency of the requirements of specialized vocational education, it became imperative for working organizations to act as representatives of this type of education. What was at stake was far more than the need to adapt the existing school system in compliance with the capacity requirement. The development of technology poses ever more challenging requirements with regard to the varied structure of workers' education both in the pre-service period and in the professional sphere (retraining, improved qualifications, specialization, etc.). Hence the requirement stressing the development of the sub-system of education covering employed persons in the working organizations in the 1960s, which initially displayed an exclusively vocational orientation. The uppermost consideration was to ensure - through the consolidation of self-administration - a sufficiently broad orientation encompassing all areas of education (socio-political, general, cultural). Major, well-developed organizations offered special services in the field of education. In some organizations special training centres for em-

ployees were set up; in smaller enterprises the educational function was assumed by the personnel management department or the department of general services which, in the majority of cases, covered the field by special operational units. This sub-system of adult education is still in the process of development to ensure its most viable integration into the state system of education. Many of the current forms and programmes are recognized but even here recognition has been granted according to the afore-mentioned criteria or in conformance with the practice applied in the ordinary schools, although the prevalent section of activities involves activities receiving internal recognition only. One of the topical problems debated within the framework of the current school reform is how to transform the system of internal recognition restricting the worker's mobility and social utility into a system of external recognition. It is very likely that the current school reform will yield positive results at least for those forms of education which tend to focus on professions, while short-term programmes and forms of education characterized by the general linkage of cultural knowledge, political education and information, will probably remain an open issue even in the years ahead.

In practice, these three sub-systems of adult education are interconnected and further development is bound to result in a greater amount of inner fusion. Schools for adults, it will be recalled, operate either within the system of people's or workers' universities or are covered by the system of workers' organizations, although some of them enjoy an independent status or are closely tied up with the school system. Workers' and people's universities frequently operate within the framework of working organizations or offer - within their limits - educational services to workers' organizations - they implement definite programmes in compliance with the needs and acquirements of working organizations. Quite frequently, such programmes are specified so as to offset the needs of one or more organizations. In areas where educational centres operated apart from systematic and short-term forms, public lectures and similar activities were organized often in cooperation with people's and workers' universities. One can therefore speak about a unified effort in shaping this entire range of activities.

Apart from these sub-systems of adult education, one could list a number of other activities and special systems of adult education. All of them are mediated through correspondence courses of study which - though relying on the school system - display an increasingly different orientation in their programme. A significant role in this process is played by the Yugoslav People's Army, which implements a range of adult education activities. Of particular significance are activities specific to socio-political organizations, which developed their own sub-systems of education within the broad ranks of their membership. Most prominent among them are the system of education of the Union of Communists of Yugoslavia, the Socialist Unions of the Workers of Yugoslavia and the Trade Unions of Yugoslavia. Each of these institutions (organizations) promotes numerous educational activities, frequently systematic as to their character, whether this involves independent or joint schemes.

A major role in the system is played by cultural institutions. Cultural education figures prominently within the programme of activities organized by such institutions. This applies especially to different cultural associations, reading rooms, libraries, museums and houses of culture. Traditional activities are complemented in the form of different public lectures and lecture series, special events devoted to individual artists of note, events organized to mark specific jubilees and anniversaries, etc.

Although the scope for a possible application of radio and television as educational media is fairly restricted, the role of radio and television has increased in significance particularly in the field of informal education. Major progress has been recorded in the implementation of regular education programmes associated with courses and seminars, organized according to a fixed schedule by workers' and people's universities or by centres for adult education. The first steps have likewise been taken to incorporate such possibilities into the framework of correspondence study.

All in all, the system of adult education in Yugoslavia displays a recognizably upward trend working towards further progress and consolidation. We believe that the process of development in the field of

adult education will be accelerated by the current reform and the endeavour to integrate the system into the state system of education.

3. SCHOOLS FOR ADULTS[2]/

Departments for Adult Education Attached to Ordinary Schools as Primary Organizational Forms of Adult Education

The needs specifically relating to adult education first emerged at normal schools in the early post-war years. Analyzing the facts and realities of the structure of education in the period under consideration as well as the overall shortage of cadres apparent at all levels of social services in the newly-formed post-revolutionary community (the war wrought serious gaps especially within the ranks of qualified cadres), we can claim with full justification that the immediate post-war educational structure was considerably weaker than the comparable prewar pattern. The need for fresh cadres had become increasingly urgent both with regard to the rapid development of industry and in other areas of economy. These factors constituted an urgent challenge. The picture characterizing the period under review shows adult education as associated with the system of schools. Two reasons can be listed as relevant: 1/ social conditions demanded the introduction of special preparatory courses of adult education (earlier ideas of popular education have lost their validity with the emergence of new needs and requirements), 2/ adult education in the post-war period was at a fairly low level of development, special institutions had not yet been established and the same applies to independent schools.

The first constituent features of adult education originated at teacher training or normal schools. The teaching programme, identical for adults and youth alike, was only modified with regard to the time factor so as to comply with the possibilities available to adult learners. The most frequent forms were evening courses or courses which,

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[2]/ Higher schools and universities are not included among schools concerned with adult education on the grounds that study during employment represents a special area of adult education.

though shortened, involved more intensive instruction (the original four-year programme was reduced to two years). This marked the first stage in the development of the earliest sub-system of what today represents Yugoslavia's adult education - the network of schools and departments for adult education attached to the regular school system. Ten years later, the remaining sub-systems, i.e. workers' and people's universities (their total number in Yugoslavia at present is 465) and organization-based educational centres - underwent gradual development. These two sub-systems representative of establishments for adult education, i.e. workers' and people's universities and educational centres, continued to develop systematically after 1960. Up to 1960, special departments of adult education operated within the framework of normal schools. The situation then was indicative of a monolithic pattern of activities. Educational activities promoted within the framework of organizations associated with popular culture (such as "Sloboda" and others) and within the framework of socio-political organizations, though no doubt significant, were far too general in scope and orientation. Education of this type followed no special functional objectives and was restricted to the promotion of general cultural and political education. In contrast, the functional role of schools for adults was well-defined: these schools were designed to train adults for specific professions and provide instruction required for a successful exercise of the profession in question. The monopolistic position of these schools in the field of adult education became duly reflected in different qualitative aspects of their work. The degree of success and operativeness was measured in relation to ordinary schools and with regard to operational efficiency. Such type of operational appraisal gave rise to a number of problems ranging from the choice of cadres to the choice of methodology and teaching techniques taken over from normal schools. It was difficult to get away from the traditions of ordinary schools for children and youth, which were looked upon as the "only desirable model".

Models of Adult Education

After 1960, departments for adults attached to ordinary schools and evening schools began to lose their monopolistic position. Original

approaches, more adequate to andragogic practice, asserted their viability. Adult education acquired its legitimate forms also outside such departments. New forms of adult education emerge in correspondence-cum-counselling types of study and in the shape of course-based study. These two types can be fittingly described as "vertical adult education" and "horizontal adult education". The new approach to adult education was foreshadowed by short-term forms of education with a weekly or monthly programme. Gradually, the same approach was applied to long-term forms of education ranging from the acquisition of secondary school education to education at a higher and ultimately university level.

Table: Schools for Adults

School year	Number of schools		Number of departments	Students
49/50	183		-	12975
50/51	188		569	14313
51/52	187		564	10281
52/53	370		840	19161
53/54	519		1004	24471
54/55	799		1649	37807
55/56	929		2026	44898
56/57	856		1940	44763
57/58	672		1890	44040
58/59	718		2031	47057
59/60	788	Teachers	2251	54336
60/61	932	7198	2637	67036
61/62	1007	6119	2729	73040
62/63	873	5488	2338	61604
63/64	777	4595	2205	56870
64/65	737	4480	2268	58981
65/66	653	3402	2093	53975
66/67	637	3034	2059	51586
67/68	593	2310	2049	51776
68/69	575	3007	2275	61238
69/70	637	3856	2863	80462

(cont.)

(cont.)

School year	Number of schools		Number of departments	Students
70/71	743	4407	3371	97974
71/72	770	4404	3372	95417
72/73	814	4406	3641	102193
73/74	917	4571	3804	104381
74/75	883	4160	3564	106164
75/76	978	4373	3892	112904

a/ Horizontal Education

There are considerable differences between the horizontal and the vertical model. As to horizontal models, the practice is similar to that current in the ordinary type of school - the adult sits for examinations comprising all subjects specific to the grade in question. In other words, the adult is once again concerned with a syllabus covering subjects such as history, mathematics, etc. This approach is time-consuming and absorbs considerable energy on the part of the learner. He has to reassume his command of the problem area concerned, to revise his knowledge and fill in the gaps in subjects he has not been concerned with for a long time and has forgotten. Only then can he proceed with the new subject matter.

b/ Vertical Education

The rationalization of the process of adult learning and the endeavour to ensure its maximum efficiency and productivity resulted in gradual transition to the vertical approach to learning. The learner first revises his knowledge of, for instance, history taught in the first grade and immediately proceeds to the second grade, the third grade, etc. until he covers the entire syllabus. Knowledge is steadily broadened and complemented and there is a good deal of cross-referencing. Retention of subject matter is greater compared to the horizontal approach to learning. In this way, the candidate receives instruction successively as one subject follows another within each consecutive year. It would be difficult to identify the specific grade

attained by a learner proceeding according to the vertical model since he acquires knowledge in a context of continuity.

The introduction of this type of model was motivated by the drive for individualization in adult education. Individual learners, re-entering the educational process, displayed different previous educational backgrounds, different experience. Hence the rate of progress was different. With vertical models, such factors can always be taken into account.

The vertical model fulfils an important cognitive function in that it provides insight into the inner workings of andragogy. This model met with frequent opposition in departments of adult education and in evening schools because its application was at variance with the traditional pattern of pedagogical practices. Even supreme educational authorities frequently denied its validity. Fearing a slackening in discipline and criteria in the field of adult education, bodies of school administration insisted on strict adherence to standard teaching programmes and curricula and on the same number of teaching hours as in normal schools. Instead of creating conditions conducive to an efficient functioning of different organizational structures and an operative management of the process of adult education, these bodies favoured the principle of identical criteria. Unwilling to accept a different strategy leading to the same goal - a mode of learning more appropriate for adults - they basically defended old positions.

Forms of Adult Education Practised in Schools

- *Evening Schools*

The most frequent form of education among relevant models of adult education is represented by evening schools. Evening schools are a feature applying to 80% of departments, and/or schools for adults. In 67% of cases, evening schools represent the one and only possibility. The characteristic 'grade-and-subject' type of organization specific to instruction in evening schools has both its advantages and disadvantages. Immediate contact between the teacher and the learner extend the scope of pedagogical influence. As a result, educational work is more systematically planned.

Examinations piling up at the final stage instead of being organized in regular intervals throughout the year, clearly represent the negative aspect. This is precisely why some evening schools introduced a "course-based system". The learner, first mastering one specific subject, prepares himself for the subsequent examination prior to completing the grade in question. Parallel testing positively affects the learner's motivation.

Instruction in evening schools involves 4-5 hours weekly. Only Saturdays and Sundays are free. Classes begin at 4 p.m. and end at 8 and/or 9 p.m. There is little time left for study at home and in some cases the learner has no time at all for any kind of home work. Quite frequently adults confront a situation where study at home absorbs a considerable number of hours and affords no time for other social activities. Faced with such pressures, adult learners can only fulfil their most essential assignments and obligations.

Table: Basic Schools for Adults

Number of schools	Number of departments	Number of students (women)	Teachers	School year
268	1746	45046 14924	2217	1972/73
235	1845	45946 16361	2347	1973/74
322	1749	47775 18739	2109	1974/75
394	2000	55588 20503	2425	1975/76

Table: Other Schools for Adults
a/ Schools for qualified workers

Schools	Departments	Students (women)	Teachers	School year
153	483	13546 2039	646	1972/73
154	441	11703 1873	603	1973/74
130	400	12175 2135	658	1974/75
143	442	12256 1788	508	1975/76

(cont.)

(cont.)

b/ Schools for highly qualified workers

150	374	10533	1289	279	1972/73
174	411	11903	1490	335	1973/74
142	355	10131	1144	295	1974/75
142	343	9698	1073	228	1975/76

c/ Technical and other four-year vocational schools

241	944	29166	10073	1118	1972/73
267	969	30078	10073	1096	1973/74
249	936	30907	10294	971	1974/75
240	944	29229	9566	988	1975/76

d/ Evening grammar schools (SFRJ)

12	54	1471	768	124	1972/73
10	57	1429	746	128	1973/74
9	51	1632	902	60	1974/75
9	45	1526	770	96	1975/76

- *The Course Based Model of Education, System of Courses, Forms of Instruction*

In Yugoslav practice, three different terms are applied to what are more or less the same forms of adult education. In these forms too education involves direct contact between the learner and the teacher (andragogue) but this is neither the sole nor the principal source of cognition as, for instance, in the case of evening schools. All participants alike have to rely on self-instruction. The weekly average in evening schools is 18 hours, whereas in the course-based and/or instruction system the weekly load never exceeds 9 hours. Instead of four to five times a week, participants attend classes twice weekly. Together with the teacher they go through the most essential sections of the subject matter and are instructed and advised on how to study independently at home. The group receives only the most elementary briefing required for efficient orientation during self-instruc-

tion. This is why the model is frequently described as the "instruction" model.

The course-based model is characterized by a specific type of division of subject matter, distinct in this respect from the practice current in evening schools. Each course deals efficiently with the material covered by individual subjects of instruction. Completing the course, participants are afforded an interval for relaxation prior to further study. This interval coincides with the examination period. Each participant is thus subject to the pressure of the entire group, tries to pass all the stipulated examinations concurrently with other students and keep abreast of others. This system highlights the social motivation of education: competitiveness, prestige and better progress.

The course-based model is applied in cases where the number of candidates is relatively small in the region in question or when the number of qualified specialists is too restricted to provide the staff for an evening school. These are not the only reasons that could be listed in favour of this form of education or in favour of the instruction model. Sometimes better quality represents the major advantage in that the cadres display better andragogic standards of training. At the same time, as to organization the model complies more efficiently with the needs and possibilities of adult learners.

- *Correspondence and Correspondence-Counselling Forms of Education*

Correspondence courses of study represent a special organizational pattern of education beyond the scope of possibilities available to ordinary schools. This type of education can only be handled by specialized schools. Correspondence-based education requires previous training involving different departments. This is why schools of this type must possess a specific infra-structure which is absent in schools of the ordinary type. In this respect, correspondence courses of study entail a well-developed editorial programme covering the publication of textbooks in addition to well-organized technical services and administration. All these are features beyond the reach of normal schools.

Correspondence courses of study are offered by specialized so-called correspondence schools for adults. Relevant examples include, for instance, the Correspondence Workers' University at Ljubljana, the Bureautechnical College at Zagreb, the Correspondence School at Belgrade as well as other schools of the same type operating in all the major centres in Yugoslavia. In a way similar to the course-based model of education, correspondence courses of study evolved as a specific form of study open to employed people who thus can acquire higher or even university qualifications. Statistical data for 1977 indicate that correspondence courses of study in Yugoslavia involve approximately 60 000 adults.

The data show that 10 % of adults are enrolled for the so-called pure forms of correspondence study, while about 60 % attend seminars, lectures and consultation representing the total of 100 hours on the annual average and 30 % supplement their study by different forms of work exceeding 100 hours annually. The lectures and seminars are well-attended. Supplementary forms of correspondence study cover seminars, consultations, tutorials and joint study groups designed to compensate for the lack of immediate contact between the teacher and the student.

The first correspondence schools in Yugoslavia came into existence in the inter-war period (Vidovič's Grammar School at Sarajevo and the Correspondence School of Administration at Ljubljana). Their establishment was spurred on by the social disparities of the day and their impact on education. The most talented people in the country, who had no financial means to acquire education in the conventional way, enlisted for correspondence study. The effect of these schools can be described as generally favourable. It must be remembered that in the period under consideration correspondence study involved only a handful of people, people displaying great talent and strong motivation. Notwithstanding the difficult conditions of study, the outcome was bound to be successful.

Today, an ever-broadening section of Yugoslav population acquires education at different levels via correspondence courses of study. Substandard talent and insufficient motivation are the two main prob-

lems besetting the field. To provide a few comparative figures - in 1977 the total number of adults enrolled for study at different departments and schools in Slovenia amounted to 20603, out of this 8961 were women. Of these 20000 candidates, more than a half is represented by correspondence students. In view of the great number of people interested in correspondence study, we must adapt requirements in a way complying with general possibilities and conditions.

The weakness of the Yugoslav system of correspondence study relates to the hitherto inadequate application of learning materials and audiovisual aids and media. Radio, television and film are utilized only from time to time.

Correspondence study represents a specific institutional alternative in the field of adult education. It mitigates spatial pressures and to a certain extent problems affecting cadres. All these are aspects that constitute a serious challenge in the upsurge of broadly-based activities in the field of adult education. Correspondence schools cater for thousands of students, while spatially the capacity of evening schools is restricted to only a few hundreds of students.

Schools for Adults - Prospects and Shortcomings

Programmes covering schools for adults have retained much of their characteristic conservatism. They were heavily dependent on ordinary schools, they drew on the traditions of schools to which they were attached and in the majority of cases, they were and still are headed by teachers on the staff of normal schools. This accounts for the direct transference of forms and methods of work. As to operational strategies and procedures, innovation activities were far more frequent in the remaining forms of adult education, primarily in short-term forms of education not leading to the acquisition of certificates or diplomas, i.e. the type of education in which it is irrelevant whether the school is or is not recognized.

These factors account for the inability of schools for adults to ensure a sufficient number of specialists, i.e. andragogues working on a full-time basis. The staff of such schools overlapped with the staff

of ordinary schools. Adult classes represent an additional duty with regard to the teacher's normal assignment. This is why standards of teaching varied from one school to another. One of the reasons for this kind of vaccilation might well be that a number of aspects of adult education still await a more systematic inquiry. Everything depended on the type of staff in individual departments and schools and their degree of willingness to cooperate with cultural establishments, socio-political bodies and organizations as well as other agencies operating in the localities or throughout the republic. Understandably, this situation affected the choice and recruitment of participants, the development of specific schools and hence personnel management policies. We realize that at present personnel management policies do not rely only on resources accruing from ordinary schools but that broadly-based adult training is of equal value. In terms of adult training we can identify areas with surplus cadres as well as areas reflecting a persistent shortage of cadres.

The practice of assigning adults to specific types of schools still reveals a number of anomalies and deviations in Yugoslavia. Adults express the general wish to acquire better education, but their aspirations are not channelled in a positive way. Thus one of the difficulties encountered is that adults frequently decide in favour of schools with efficient organizational standards, - schools offering well-organized training and instruction - although such schools may cover areas in which there is arguably no need for qualified personnel. Enrollment figures for study at schools providing training in administration, at secondary commercial schools, commercial schools offering higher qualifications, economic schools and other secondary vocational schools clearly outstep the actual need for corresponding cadres in the target areas. On the other hand, there is a palpable shortage of technicians in spheres such as engineering, electrical engineering and building and construction.

4. ADULT STUDIES AT YUGOSLAV UNIVERSITIES

In Yugoslavia education and schooling recently have been undergoing radical changes. They are being given special attention and have more than any other social process become the subject of public debates, which deal with the issue primarily in connection with work and self-management. In an effort to design an adequate educational model, social interests are given priority. Now, more than ever before, social objectives in education and schooling are being highlighted. Together with the developments and changes in the general system of education, changes in higher education have become necessary.

Some General Trends in the Field of Education

Industrial growth and the development of social relations have intensified the need for better knowledge. Therefore in Yugoslavia, the schooling of the young was systematically extended and an ever-growing section of young people continued their studies after finishing compulsory (8 years) schooling. Some 40 to 70 per cent of the young (the percentage varies for different areas of Yugoslavia) continued their schooling at various types of secondary schools. The increasing need for knowledge, especially for one's job, has made it necessary for young people to enter institutions of higher education. Conducive to this end were some other factors, such as: increasing aspirations for education, democratization of education, the increasing concentration of the population in cities where education is more readily available, the rising standard of living, etc.

Not all young people, however, who were influenced by the above factors, did have equal opportunities to continue their studies at institutions of higher education either for objective reasons (the distance to adequate schools being too great), lack of required preparatory training, or because they held a job for which they had been trained at vocational schools. The greatest differences, however, in

the opportunities to enroll at the university were due to the fact that young people were trained in different types of secondary schools. Secondary schools and some secondary vocational schools lead directly to the university. Other types of schools trained their pupils primarily for a job: as a result, such pupils could continue study at a higher level only in exceptional cases. They were admitted to institutions of higher learning only after taking an entrance examination. These examinations, however, were so demanding that only few pupils from vocational schools, or pupils with some other "inadequate education", were able to pass them, notwithstanding the fact that workers were granted this opportunity by law. This accounts for the somewhat retarded development of part-time studies. Most of the requests for education were granted by some types of secondary schools that gave a relatively freer access to the general population of students (School of Business Management, School of Work Organization, etc.). Candidates with inadequate or incomplete secondary education had little choice but to seek further education at institutions at which part-time studies were better organized and which offered better opportunities for further studies, irrespective of the type of vocation they themselves would have liked to adopt.

To eliminate the above-mentioned anomalies and to give equal opportunities to all for further studies and, at the same time, to satisfy the demands of society for education, a reform was launched of all education institutions above the eight-year compulsory school. First, the reform of secondary schooling was undertaken with the objective of doing away with the dualism of the secondary school system and to ensure that part-time studies were put on a par with regular studies. Thus, adult education at university level was an extension of part-time education at lower educational levels.

The reform was also to solve some other urgent educational problems. The curricula had become too cumbersome and increasingly estranged from practice and life. The final process of training and the actual preparation for a job began only after one entered upon a job. The process of training following schooling was becoming somewhat too protracted. The schools were accused of poor preparation of their graduates for the actual functions they were expected to exercise in society, even though the curricula were so demanding. Consequently,

the reform also modified the curricula so that programme content was not to be tailored as something static and final but as a programme governed by the concept of life-long education. Specific aspects of the existing programme were to be omitted and offered later in the form of continuing education, while some subjects were to be extended over a longer period of time and incorporated in the university studies as general subjects (this applies first and foremost to subjects of general educational value).

The curricula of regular schooling and of part-time schooling are designed to take into account continuing education after completion of regular schooling. Regular studies, part-time studies and continuing education are three equivalent parallel branches of higher education. Discernible as a general trend in the field of education is the increasingly strong emphasis given to part-time education. Adult education and regular schooling (education of school-age children) have been given equal social status by the reform.

The reform also introduced technical training into all regular schools, accepting at the same time the value of the experience gained previously by workers who come back to school for further education. The experience gained on the job is on a par with the remaining knowledge (gained by the informal and formal ways). Thus the schooling of the young and of adults is fused into a uniform, integrated system. The social status of adult education has risen; up till now it has been claimed that adult education plays only a subordinate social role.

The new aspects of adult education, and its new social evaluation, offer greater opportunities for a fast development of part-time studies at the university level. They also help to overcome the difficulties of, prejudices against, and doubts about, part-time studies still observable at some institutions of higher education, especially some colleges and art academies. It is for this reason that the changes introduced by the reform into education and schooling should not be ignored in any account of the development of part-time studies in Yugoslavia.

Stages in the Development of Part-Time Studies

So far, three characteristic stages in the development of part-time studies can be discerned. Within this chronological framework, part-time studies have gained momentum, undergone expansion and increased in prestige. At the same time, they have changed qualitatively so as to meet the needs of practical life, to promote social development, and to comply with the principles of adragogic theory and andragogic science.

The *first stage is represented by the transition from irregular studies to part-time studies*. Even today part-time studies are frequently equated with "irregular" studies even though they represented two different and distinct pedagogic phenomena; they are duly distinguished in pedagogic theory and practice.

Irregular studies are governed by the principle of self-education. This form of education has been resorted to mainly by learners who, for one reason or another, have dropped out from regular schooling. Irregular studies have not been characterized by any of the forms typical for the educational process; every irregular student has organized his studies by himself. Hence the difference setting apart individual cases. Every irregular student fought his own way to an examination or diploma. Irregular studies were, by and large, self-education. Admittedly, pure forms of self-education are fraught with numerous drawbacks; they could no longer keep pace with the rhythm of modern life; the process is far from efficient. Nowadays, time has become a decisive factor in decisions to continue one's education. The shortcomings of self-education mean that irregular studies are becoming an increasingly impracticable form for meeting the need for knowledge. Such studies took too long a time and the effect was rather scanty. Further development, moreover, was greatly influenced by the fact that irregular studies could be pursued only in some disciplines, such as those that by their nature are based on print materials and do not require practical, experimental or laboratory work. Thus, irregular students, had limited possibilities in the choice of disciplines; to study medicine, chemistry, biology, etc. was impossible; only social studies and the humanities were accessible.

Since irregular studies were primarily compensatory education, the candidates followed the standard regular programme. Part-time studies, on the other hand, are group studies that spring from the broader needs of society (and not only of individuals) for education and are therefore qualitatively different from irregular studies. Part-time studies are not only compensatory, but also innovative.

Adult students enroll and follow programme specially designed for them. They can, however, also follow entirely novel programme (innovational education), which these students at the time of their regular schooling were unable to follow because they did not then exist. By reason of previously acquired knowledge and experience, part-time curricula normally differ from regular ones. They are adapted in compliance with the previous knowledge and experience of adults.

Part-time studies as group studies are based on the conventional organization of education. Some typical models such as part-time studies in courses or consultative correspondence models have been adopted. New special models of part-time studies are being formulated to take into account the specific content of curricula and the terms under which adults can study. The specific approach to shaping the structure of part-time studies is another effort in the direction of adapting part-time studies to adult needs after first taking into account the level of previously acquired knowledge, experience and the desire for more knowledge.

The organization of curricula is closely connected with problems of duration in part-time studies. Judging from experience, part-time studies are still of a longer duration than regular studies, even though the previously acquired knowledge, experience and maturity of adults would make one expect that the opposite is true. All this is due to the fact that the criteria for measuring and evaluating the adult students previous knowledge and experience are inadequate. Since in most cases such criteria are either missing or neglected, part-time students are offered a repetition of the standard regular programme. Such a situation makes us aware of the fact that this is an area which still leaves much to be desired, for we have succeeded in solving only some problems posed by part-time studies whereas

others are still open. Frequently, part-time studies lack efficient organization, students are offered the material they know already, for our criteria are still those of formal education, teaching periods, lectures and subjects. The material reveals practically no problems, is rigidly presented and suffers from the usual kind of formalism with which regular studies are saddled.

Part-time studies have originated in response to a massive need for knowledge and reflect a general social interest. Unlike former irregular students, part-time students no longer depend on self-education alone. Part-time studies are a special form of higher learning and represent a continuous and completely conducted educational process differing from regular studies by being specially programmed and organized. They are as continuous as other forms of education. Apart from the different type of programme, part-time studies are characterized by a different didactic approach. The aims and objectives of part-time education, and the criteria for the evaluation of knowledge are the same as those of regular studies, although their formulation follows different procedural lines and principles.

In the first stage of the development of part-time studies there were only a few centers offering well designed curricula. Part-time studies were largely neglected finding their way only into less prestigeous institutions of higher education where the needs of practical life were more than obvious, as a result of which financial aid was granted to part-time students.

The new Higher Education Act, which the Yugoslav republics promulgated in the years 1974 and 1975, set part-time studies on a par with regular studies. In *the second stage of the development part-time studies* became an integral part of the entire educational system. Under the new socioeconomic conditions in the area of education and schooling, irregular studies have withered away. Financial aid was granted only to group programme that hat been tested and evaluated.

This second stage was characterized by a fast quantitative growth. The number of part-time students increased and part-time programmes were offered in entirely new branches of knowledge.

In addition to this quantitative growth the second stage was characterized by certain qualitative change: the relations between part-time and regular studies had undergone specific changes. Part-time studies began to influence the organization, the programming and the remaining problems of regular, full-time studies. At the beginning there was a one-way connection so that regular studies exerted their influence on part-time studies, whereas now the influence has been reversed. In the advanced educational process so many new things had happened that the existing organized and traditional regular studies could no longer retain their original form. The changes brought to bear upon regular studies by part-time studies can be summarized as follows:

- regular studies acquired the shape of a more consistent educational process and began to function as a more clearly determined uniform system less dependent on the methods of individual teachers or on their personal professional interests:
- regular studies adopted an increasing number of new didactic approaches and techniques of advanced education applicable to both regular students and adults at the university.

Relative to the former change referred to above, it can be stated that the reorganization of regular studies is well under way. Many colleges and other higher education institutions have been preparing their hitherto "missing" curricula so that single subjects supplement each other and tie in with each other in accordance with fundamental educational aims and objectives. Consequently, the university has attained the character of a mass school that reflects the democratization of educational opportunities for all citizens. The teacher is chosen in accordance with the demands of the curriculum and not vice versa as when the teaching programme (curriculum) at the university had been tailored to suit the professional interests and specialities of the teacher.

A comparison of the programme of the same discipline at various universities revealed major difference, whereas the curricula of secondary schools showed practically no differences. At the university level it was frequently found that entire areas of knowledge in one discipline were missing because no competent teacher was available, whereas other areas of knowledge were overemphasized if staff in-

terests were involved. At some university departments two teachers covering the same specialization were employed with the result that the subject was allotted many more teaching periods a week. With the development of part-time studies, university programmes have become standardized. The criteria for the choice of subjects are governed by specific educational aims and objectives as they are at lower level schools.

Better standards of organization are also apparent in the remaining pattern of studies. As a rule, examination dates are fixed in advance for the whole school year and tests are given at least once a month. Consultations, teachers office hours, and other help offered to students are also provided.

The duration of study presents an acute problem. The average time needed for a discipline demanding 4 years (8 semesters) has been 7 years. The crowded universities cannot cope with such protraction because it creates financial and staff problems. A larger group of young people cannot be left behind in their studies because of the ever changing curricula. As long as there were only a handful of students enrolled at the universities, that is, a low percentage of the young generation, one or another student could afford to extend his studies. Mass enrollment, however, makes protracted studies no longer feasible.

Under the influence of part-time studies, didactics at higher education institutions has been undergoing a rapid development. "Short-courses models" have also been introduced in regular studies and have, at some departments, become a *sine qua non* for the so-called year-by-year studies where the student undergoes tests in all the required subjects before the beginning of the new school year. The short-course system enables the students to finish some subjects immediately after the end of the course, at midyear or later. Thanks to the introduction of the short-course system, the students often have fewer lectures and a greater opportunity for other more creative forms of study.

Under the influence of part-time studies an increasing amount of written material is being used also in regular studies. A broader

range of text-books, manuals, written directions, etc. are being published. Without all these facilities part-time studies cannot function, and regular studies profit greatly by them. Part-time studies also have given an impetus to the use of different audio-visual teaching aids which, up to now, have been used rarely at the university level even though they have been used widely at the elementary and secondary school level.

It is clear that new unconvential forms of education and much practical work have become incorporated into regular studies. Thus, regular studies should go hand-in-hand with cultural commitment, socio-political activity and practical work in various organizations of associated labour. The students are required to do practical work in order to gain experience acquired otherwise by adults on the job. Thus the profile of the regular students and that of the part-time student gradually converge on a number of points. This in turn ties in with *the further development* of university level studies. In the light of the existing trends the question arises of what is going to happen in a few years if the number of part-time students will continue to increase at the same fast rate. The percentage of part-time students has, at some departments, even exceeded the quota of regular students. One is justified to ask whether at this rate of development a day might not come when there would be no regular, full-time students at all.

I have no desire to answer this question directly. The answer, however, is provided by the reform of part-time education and the new Part-Time Education Act involving secondary schools and institutions of advanced learning as a coherent, well-planned system, displaying a correct degree of interdependence. After nation-wide public discussions our republics have promulgated the Part-Time Education Act for 1977 and/or 1978. With this, part-time studies have reached a new stage in which the entire advanced education system will be transformed into "adult education" and will no longer be divided into regular and part-time education but into part-time education and recurrent education. A student will be able to enroll at a university only after having held a job for a while and having gained a certain degree of practical experience. Considering the final capacity of organizations of associated labour one is justified to expect that, at

least in the initial stage of the process, part-time studies will prevail because recurrent education would put them under too great financial and other obligations to the students they had sent back to school.

The forthcoming legislation on the status of students offers the clearest picture of the aims and objectives of part-time education. In Yugoslavia the debate about the status of students has been going on for a long time. It is closely connected with the policy of scholarship distribution which, in spite of several efforts, could not meet all the needs and satisfy all the ambitions because of the ever-increasing number of enrolled students. The debates about scholarship distribution have led to the conclusion that our society is not so rich (nor is any other society, for that matter) as to solve the problem of the increasing need for and aspirations after knowledge by simply doling out student grants. An alternative solution had to be found. It is obvious that part-time studies offer such an alternative.

The part-time student has an established social status, holds a job, is financially independent and can assume his duties and exercise his rights within the framework of the self-management system. There is not much fear of a part-time student failing in his studies. If his job ties in with his studies because he works in an industrial branch similar to the discipline he studies then he will have even an advantage over the regular students; he will bring to the lecture or laboratory a certain amount of applicable, practical knowledge whereas the regular student will have to begin at the beginning heavily relying on the teacher's presentation of the subject. The information and knowledge held by a part-time student come from several sources and thus may supplement each other. Since they are more extensive, such experience may even shorten part-time studies.

Regular students faced with the problem of scholarships have had the feeling that they stand on the fringe of social events. They have increasingly felt and indeed criticised the differences in the social status of regular and part-time students. In spite of some dilemmas they have come to see the advantages of part-time studies and tried to improve their own status which, however, cannot be radically

changed if they do not accept new and additional responsibilities. The reform visualizes a close tie-in of all students with organizations of associated labour. In this way the social status of the students will change and they will gradually assume the character of part-time students. This can solve not only the problem of the regular students' means of subsistence but also consolidate their social status as they are bound to become part of the production and self-management system. Thus the entire higher education system would become part-time education.

At this stage of development which, of course, is yet to be accomplished, not only an attempt must be made to solve the problem of the students' social status but changes must likewise be introduced in teaching programmes, the adaptation of education to practical needs and life, the social role of university studies and other problems. The reform cannot confine itself to the mere problem of the students' social status without making an attempt at solving some concomitant issues with which education and schooling are now burdened. One of the major successes of the reform is that it has brought education nearer to the work-shop and to life in general. At secondary schools great efforts are being made to work out competent curricula along the lines of which students would be adequately trained for the chosen vocation. The higher the level of education, the more it is difficult to say what "adequate education" is: indeed, what in fact will prepare the candidate for his future job and life.

The solution of this problem is that at educational levels above secondary school, both education and work become a closely knit and intertwined process. Thus university studies acquire the nature of part-time studies in the true sense of the word.

In this solution lies the answer to some claims voiced by some foreign pedagogic researchers that the more the studies have been protracted, the more schooling has become an abstract structure estranged from real life. The greater the number of years spent at school, the looser the contacts with the actual aims and objectives of the studies themselves. The studies have begun to be pursued for their own sake. With the years of formal education the motivation for edu-

cation also decreases. The candidates squeeze out of the educational process a bare minimum, as much as is indispensable for the conclusion of their studies since they lack motivation for more. The present day needs for knowledge, however, call for maximum efficiency, and more than that. It is not enough that one knows something, that one is able to reproduce certain facts; the criterion for successful education is that one is capable of using that knowledge in practical life, that one can apply the acquired knowledge. For this purpose part-time studies are much more suitable and regular studies are less satisfactory.

It is expected that, in the future, part-time studies will not be merely one of the possible alternatives available to citizens but will become the sole educational system supplemented only by the previously concluded schooling and recurrent education.

The Development of Part-Time Studies in Yugoslavia from 1966 to 1975

The data compiled for the whole of Yugoslavia show some general trends. First it must be noted that so far the development of part-time studies has been rather irregular studies; there are considerable discrepancies between individual institutions of higher education and colleges as to the number of enrolled part-time students as well as to the proportion of graduates. Part-time studies have grown out of irregular studies.

The available data indicate that part-time studies are largely a question of prestige as to the type of school and the social structure of part-time students (see tables). Part-time studies have had the fastest development at school of higher education (4 semesters); the same has been true of institutions of advanced learning. The development at universities has been somewhat slower; there are differences in how various disciplines have developed part-time studies. The lowest percentage of part-time students has been found at art academies. It seems that these institutions admit primarily talented individuals to studies that are exclusively regular and full-time.

Table: Graduates of Part-Time Studies

% of part-time students during 1966 - 1975

	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975
A) FACULTIES of										
1. Philosophy	17	18	21	21	20	18	14	15	13	13
2. Philology	17	20	22	22	22	22	22	23	25	22
3. Natural Sciences and Mathem.	11	11	11	10	13	11	7	9	7	10
4. Architecture	3	0.9	1.3	5	4	3	2	2.7	2	3
5. Construction Engineering	0.3	–	1.2	0.9	2	0.6	0.3	1	1	0.9
6. Geodesy	1	1	5	–	2	10	3	1.8	–	6
7. Mechanical Engineering	0.3	0.4	2	3	2	1	2	3	2	4
8. Traffic Engineering	12	–	–	5	3	2	1	–	1	1
9. Electrical Engineering	0.5	0.3	1.5	–	0.7	1	0.2	0.7	1	1
10. Chemistry and Technology	0.3	2	2	1.4	1	1	0.7	0.3	2	2
11. Food Technology	9	8	3.8	7	0.9	2	2	4	2	–
12. Mining Engineering	0.8	0.8	7	0.9	0.8	3	2	12	7	4
13. Geology	–	1	5.6	6	2	4	–	1	2	3
14. Metallurgy	1	–	4	3	–	–	–	–	–	0.1
15. Agronomy	7	6	6.3	6	7	5	5	4	4	4
16. Forestry	2	5	3.7	7	3	3	7	1.6	2	4
17. Veterinary Sciences	2	6	5	3	5	1	0.9	–	–	0.4
18. Economics	22	25	27	28	31	30	30	24	24	22
19. Law	42	46	43	38	42	41	39	35	33	32
20. Political Sciences	–	14	14	27	13	17	14	16	17	19
21. Medicine	0.2	0.4	0.7	0.1	0.7	0.1	–	0.1	–	–
22. Stomatology	5	5	2	2	4	2	8	7	3	4
23. Pharmacology	2	0.6	1	–	–	0.5	–	1.2	0.3	–
B) ACADEMIES of										
1. Arts	–	1	–	1	3	–	–	–	–	
2. Music	0.6	–	1	1.7	2.7	3	2	3	–	
3. Theatrical Arts (Theatre, Radio, Telev.)	24	11	2.9	5	8.6	21	20	9	–	

(cont.)

(cont.)

	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975
C) POST-SECONDARY FOUR-YEAR SCHOOLS of										
1. Defectology	21	54	54	66	73	76	48	–	–	
2. Physical Culture	23	16	28	47	33	24	45	45	36	
3. Economics	22	52	51	76	90	100	96	100	–	
4. Administration	55	56	50	73	68	72	72	75	78	
5. Political Sciences	27	19	33	2	–	–	–	–	–	
D) POST-SECONDARY TWO-YEAR SCHOOLS of										
1. Education	29	34	35	35	46	48	48	52	55	50
2. Pedagogical Academy	35	39	37	39	36	38	43	48	61	61
3. Defectology	–	–	59	54	48	52	57	64	56	71
4. Mechanical Engineering	17	25	31	39	55	37	33	42	36	38
5. Building Engineering	8	17	6	14	22	33	31	40	44	39
6. Electrical Engineering	7	7	17	20	27	25	18	23	33	31
7. Chemistry and Technology	3	3	13	9	12	43	23	21	18	12
8. Food Technology	17	28	33	18	28	33	25	38	32	33
9. Marine Engineering	4	8	11	9.5	10	8	10	11	14	11
10. Farming	12	16	14	15	14	24	26	36	32	45
11. Economics	52	56	54	59	62	56	58	62	62	56
12. Book-keeping	72	71	74	76	79	79	78	69	73	75
13. Foreign Trade	55	49	39	53	68	69	64	49	66	63
14. Statistics	26	28	40	34	28	32	21	12	29	11
15. Administration	69	64	71	74	80	77	67	68	69	70
16. Law	54	66	42	73	56	41	57	53	51	49
17. Organization of Labour	–	–	8	51	32	45	47	43	30	26
18. for Social Workers	30	33	30	29	31	37	34	35	39	40
19. for Nurses	54	68	55	52	50	55	52	60	65	57

The differences in the development of part-time studies have also been due to the different degree of complexity characterizing individual areas of study and the specific nature of the discipline. There is practically no area of knowledge in which part-time studies could not be organized (including the study of medicine, about which so many doubts have been voiced). The question, however, is what methods and forms of work should be used for this purpose. The differences between the data for individual institutions are by no means due to major differences between disciplines and thus cannot be attributed to these factors.

Among the graduates from institutions of two-year post-secondary education there are 75 per cent of part-time students and only in three instances (of the 19 listed types of such institutions) does the percentage of graduates from among part-time students drop below 20 (School of Chemistry and Technology, School of Nautics, School of Statistics). In all the remaining institutions the proportion of graduates who are part-time students is much higher and includes about one-half of the students.

Institutions of two-year post-secondary education face a special situation. Some have been set up exclusively for part-time students (School of Political Sciences, which, however, is not covered by our data); later on their number has decreased in favour of regular students. Institutions of two-year post-secondary education share the ambition to become incorporated in a university; as a result they endeavour to approach, one way or another, faculty standards and accentuate regular studies. The proportion of graduates from part-time studies has ranged in recent years from 36 to 100 per cent (School of Economics).

With regard to schools with advanced standards of part-time studies one can conclude that part-time studies develop under the pressure of economic and societal needs.

The proportion of part-time students among university graduates ranges from 0,1 to 32 per cent. The highest percentage is well below the lower limit of the hitherto discussed schools. The data reveal

that part-time studies at university level have not developed in accordance with the needs of industry but have developed in those areas where the nature of work facilitated the shift from irregular studies to adult group studies. These include; Faculty of Law, Faculty of Economics, Faculty of Philology, Faculty of Political Sciences, and Faculty of Philosophy. Personnel requirements, however, demand that part-time studies be developed in the area of technology, mathematics, and natural sciences, which, of course, would present a somewhat more complex problem.

The data under discussion are valid for the whole of Yugoslavia. In the summary data, however, it was not possible to include some special problems affecting the universities spearheading the new developmental trend. In some places, isolated "islands" of part-time education have emerged, initiated by individual teachers who have brought in new ideas from their studies abroad. One example is the University of Ljubljana where part-time studies are best developed at the Faculty of Mechanical Engineering and the Faculty of Electrical Engineering and less so where one would expect it from the professional point of view. At this stage of the development of part-time studies varied forces and agencies have been at work. Part-time studies have only recently developed into a coherent system.

So far we have examined the data for Yugoslavia in terms of faculties, institutions of two-year post-secondary education academies and higher level schools. We have seen that part-time studies vary greatly in extent. The upward trend of growth is especially apparent at some higher level schools and faculties (both 8 semesters lasting). Considering the total population of part-time students the rate of growth is relatively slow. The number of part-time students at institutions of two-year post-secondary schools and faculties has increased by 12 per cent during the nine-year period. The same increase is observable in the number of graduates from among the ranks of part-time students of higher education and faculties.

There are considerable differences between the number of graduates from the rank of part-time students at higher level schools or after 4 semesters at the university (38 per cent) on the one hand, and the

number of graduates who have finished studies at an institution of advanced learning or faculty (6 per cent). This is probably due to the fact that part-time studies are better developed at higher level schools that at faculties. Some higher level schools have been set up exclusively for part-time studies (School for Work Organization, School of Business, School for Traffic, School of Political Sciences). Of late, these schools have begun to enroll also regular students. The differences are likewise due to subjective factors. Since the attainment of a diploma of a higher level school is a rather short-term venture it represents a much more attractive objective for a student than a diploma that could be attained in an indefinite number of years and with unpredictable difficulties.

Among part-time students an interesting study pattern has emerged. Quite a number of graduates from a higher level school enroll at a faculty, for they seem to think that it is simpler to attain a faculty diploma after they have finished a higher level school.

Table: Part-Time Students and Graduates of Part-Time Courses in Slovenia (in per cent)

Academic year	Students of post-secondary schools and faculties	Graduates from two-year courses (university or post-secondary schools)	Graduates from faculties
1967/68	20	25	4
1968/69	22	28	4
1969/70	25	40	5
1970/71	28	39	5
1971/72	26	37	3
1972/73	26	44	6
1973/74	28	51	8
1974/75	31	38	6
1975/76	32	38	7

Conclusion

At the present time, part-time studies still represent the more difficult alternative road to a diploma. The opportunities offered by institutions of higher education in total vary greatly. By and large each student generation includes some 25 per cent of part-time students of whom only every fourth or fifth graduates.

In various societal documents the potential social status of part-time studies is put on a par with or is even higher than that of regular, full-time studies. In reality, however, part-time studies still have a poor public and professional reputation and represent an inferior educational alternative. This can be seen from the opinions so frequently encountered in practice. Such opinions, however, are not encouraging, especially not for educational institutions which are to introduce part-time studies into their teaching programmes or which are to develop them further.

There is also much uncertainty as to the criteria for the evaluation of the knowledge derived from part-time studies. Cases have been known of criteria far less rigorous than those applied in regular studies, especially at those schools where the criteria for the evaluation of knowledge have notoriously varied from discipline to discipline. It has, however, also been reported that at some schools criteria for the evaluation of knowledge acquired in part-time studies are more demanding "because part-time students prepare themselves for the examination more thoroughly, because they are better informed, and have their own experiences as a result of which they can answer more demanding questions".

A considerable shortcoming of part-time studies is the lack of reliable criteria for the evaluation of previously (also informally) acquired knowledge and experience. Therefore part-time studies are frequently spacious and unduly protracted. Another even worse consequence of the rudimentary criteria for evaluationg the experience of adults is the refusal to introduce part-time studies in specific areas of natural sciences, technology, medicine, etc., where the

teachers lack the capacity to integrate the required laboratory and other practical work with the experience adults have gained on the job. Here, everything is judged from the point of view of regular studies and no attempt is made to devise teaching methods applicable to part-time students. For these reasons, some faculties still reject part-time studies.

Experience shows that owing to specific circumstances part-time studies are still subject to social discrimination. They attract primarily students from financially weak social strata because they are cheaper, but are looked down on by students from the upper social strata on account of their low prestige.

Normatively, part-time studies have the promise of an increasingly significant future. There is, however, still a considerable difference between the normative pattern of part-time studies and the actual practice of this area. Pedagogues will have to make great efforts in order to develop and transform this pattern of studies into a general system of university studies. The ultimate development, however, depends on the interdisciplinary approach involving a number of specialists as well as on a revised attitude towards and appreciation of the strength of part-time studies.

5. WORKERS' AND PEOPLE'S UNIVERSITIES

General Situation

Two tendencies reflect the needs and requirements of adult education in the post-war period: organizational activities in the field of socio-political education, expected to promote the development of society and its transformation, and the positive trend in education conducive to rapid economic progress. The need for education was so urgent that a number of factors had to be enlisted in the settlement of this issue. Adults acquired education within a variety of organization. In the post-war period adult education commenced with the structuralization process operating within the framework of societies concerned with popular culture (the afore-mentioned "Sloboda", the Popular Culture Union, associating a number of societies of this type was founded in Slovenia in 1947). A year later, in 1948, similar unions came into existence in the remaining republics. These societies gave rise to people's universities, people's libraries, reading rooms and certain other institutional forms of adult education. Several years later, institutions specializing in individual branches of adult education broke away from societies concerned with popular culture. The first splinter group encompassed people's and workers' universities which in the late fifties formed their own union. Following the previous example of societies in the field of popular culture, workers' and people's universities reaffirm their existence as institutions, operating in every major city throughout the country.

In the period 1957-1959, the network of workers' universities operated throughout Yugoslavia. Social documents and objectives define the role of these new establishments as follows: people's and workers' universities should promote general socio-political education and vocational training. The proportions between individual sectors of educational activity varied, due to the impact of general trends of

social development and objectives concerning our society as a whole. At the present stage of development, different trends operate simultaneously in all republics.

Table: People's and Workers' Universities in the Early Post-War Period

Year	Number of people's universities	Number of workers' universities	Number of students
1947	866	–	2 399 633
1952	867	32	2 465 000
1957	819	84	2 770 000
1960	442	212	2 664 000

Table: People's and Workers' Universities in Yugoslavia in 1975

Republic	Workers' universities	People's universities	Total
Slovenia	47	0	47
Croatia	19	85	104
Serbia	52	34	86
Vojvodina	28	11	39
Kosovo	5	4	9
Bosnia and Herzegovina	42	57	99
Macedonia	27	4	31
Montenegro	4	7	11
Yugoslavia	224	202	426

Table: Number of Students and Andragogues (1975) at Workers' and People's Universities in Long-Term Courses of Study

Republic	Students	Andragogues (full-time employment)	Andragogues (part-time employment)
Slovenia	174 691	5 771	
Croatia	145 932	1 155	4 682
Serbia	165 023	820	3 621
Bosnia and Herzegovina	121 289	646	3 227
Macedonia	29 602	110	854
Montenegro	no data		
Yugoslavia	638 577	20 886	

Table: Individual Lectures at Workers' and People's Universities in 1975

Republic	Number of activities	Number of students
Slovenia	6 070	503 401
Croatia	8 856	1 323 459
Serbia	10 249	2 198 139
Bosnia and Herzegovina	6 192	1 078 139
Macedonia	4 135	174 246
Montenegro	195	13 778
Yugoslavia	35 697	5 291 900

The number of workers' and people's universities has been steadily decreasing since their foundation. This downward trend continues up to the present day. The mounting activity of these institutions, however, contrasts with their small number. In 1975, there was a total of 224 workers' and 202 people's universities in Yugoslavia, i.e. 426

universities of this category (see table). Adding to this the figures concerning the activity of individual institutions, we can claim that the increasing rate of professionalization of andragogic activity significantly boosted the capacity of workers' and people's universities, now employing a bigger staff covering a correspondingly broader range of activities. Smaller universities are incorporated into bigger universities.

The andragogic activity of workers' and people's universities is still based largely on external professional assistance. The proportion ranges from 1:3 to 1:8 (see table) and the same situation is expected to prevail in the future. The scope of adult teaching is so varied that sole reliance on internal members of the staff would considerably detract from the programme. According to specific needs and requirements, workers' and people's universities enlist the cooperation of specialists acting in a consultative capacity as counsellors. These include economists, lawyers, engineers, doctors, professors, teachers from ordinary schools, etc.

In 1975, 25% of Yugoslavia's total population completed different preparatory courses of study organized by workers' and people's universities. Viewed in terms of the national average, this means that every fourth citizen in Yugoslavia participated either in short-term or in long-term forms of adult education (see table). This, of course, represents only a specific section of the total volume of andragogic practice in Yugoslavia.

Basic Tendencies in the Development of Teaching Programmes

The content of teaching programmes in the majority of Yugoslav workers' and people's universities is oriented towards vocational adult training. The period 1966-1970 saw a rapid increase in the volume of vocational training at the expense of other types of training. Social and general education in the period under review was at a low ebb or reached the point of obvious stagnation. At first this uniform trend is not directly perceptible in the general context of programmes and activities. Once speeded up, economic development created specific material conditions, which had to be adapted in compliance with the

general situation. Most of our establishments approached this task with great responsibility and commitment. In the period under discussion, individual vocational training centres were integrated into workers' universities and the same applies to preparatory courses of technical training, courses centring on education and productivity, etc. Close cooperation was very much in evidence.

In its general conception, vocational training accentuated first and foremost a functional approach to training and education. Long-term vocational training programmes, however, had not yet emerged, at least not on a broader basis, in the period reviewed here. Vocational training was programmed and evaluated in terms of the existing pattern of relations and needs affecting the structure of cadres in the national economy. This kind of assessment was not effected on the basis of the prospective objectives of the development of society as a whole.

Teaching programmes in those days displayed a good deal of pragmatism. The trend was towards education resulting in immediate improvement rather than towards a broader social development and other functions pertinent to the worker. Various technocratic criteria exercised a considerable degree of influence on the development of training and education within the framework of workers' and people's universities. They too affected the development of another sub-system of adult education - the network of training and education were even more strongly governed by the specific relations and needs of production. Workers' and people's universities, on the other hand, continued to pay head to the socio-political aspect of education as well as its general issues.

The second major stage in the development of workers' and people's universities spans the period 1971-1975; characteristically, all republics were affected alike by the general socio-political changes of the day.

With every passing year the intensity of socio-political education doubled and/or trebled with regard to the number of participants and the number of seminars available. Educational activities for employed

people focused on more intensive Marxist education and the socialist education of adults. At the same time, new occupational functions in the sphere of employment began to develop with a correspondingly new degree of intensity. The normative foundations of a self-governing system had already been laid down in the formative period of workers' and people's universities. Broader implementation necessitated a further step forward. Today, when active participation in self-administration involves the majority of the people, at a time, when the structure of the relations pattern governing the formal education of the country's active workforce is undergoing steady development, people are increasingly aware of the urgent need for a more broadly-based system of socio-political education.

General education, somewhat neglected in the period of more intensive vocational training and education, began to develop in line with socio-political education. General education constitutes a basis for life-long education and represents a powerful element in vocational training. People are trained for prospective new functions in the occupational sphere.

Similar changes begin to affect the forms of adult education specific to workers' and people's universities. Their impact has been especially prominent within the past decade. In the initial period there were too many meetings and lectures. Gradually, they became less numerous (the average decrease rate between 1965 and 1975 was 60% in all republics). At the same time, the number of long-term forms of adult education such as various seminars, evening schools, etc. had increased substantially. With the greater specificity and explicitness of the objectives of adult education and the stronger social influence, educational activities became less and less fragmentary. Briefly, education progressed from the informative to the formative aspect of the process. What adults required from workers' and people's universities - namely that their education be complete - was ultimately accomplished. Such type of education had a more powerful impact on people's activities and on the broader pattern of social practice.

The Programming of Teaching Materials (Curricula)

The developmental trends affecting workers' and people's universities reflected the general endeavour of society as well as the impact of specific working conditions: to a certain extent adaptations were likewise made to comply with the development at local level. Adapting to the needs specific to the relation between education and instruction within individual common labour organizations were primarily educational centres. These constituted a further sub-system of adult education.

This type of orientation in programmes focusing on general societal needs and formulated objectives accounts for the fact that the particular mode of programming largely specified for workers' and people's universities had become a reality in all republics. Programmes of adult education were formulated on a predominantly deductive basis. These programmes were derived from general social goals. Only in a minority of cases, they were drafted inductively, on the basis of preceding analyses of the specific needs of education in the occupational sphere in the sphere of culture and in the context of socio-political activities in working organizations or at local level. The most frequent practice involve the elaboration of programmes on the basis of predicted rather than actually specified needs and requirements. In this particular instance, programmes covering workers' and people's universities in different areas of activity, would display a considerably higher degree of dispersion that than actually existing in practice.

A comparison with the mode of programming practised in educational centres shows a reverse relation. The programmes of educational centres still display little adaptation and pay little attention to the more general social trends, general goals and the requirements specific to general social development. We confined ourselves to the needs and requirements within the framework of collective activities, specifically to those linked up with the actual production practice. The familiar "andragogic cycle" (offsetting the requirements, planning, programming, implementation and evaluation) thus evolved and was consistently applied in educational centres. The programmes of workers' and people's universities continued to rely on a broader conception.

6. EDUCATIONAL CENTRES AND OTHER INSTITUTIONAL FORMS OF EDUCATION IN ENTERPRISES

A General Outline of Historical Development

Following the revolutionary changes affecting Yugoslavia during and immediately after World War II, education within the framework of working organizations passed through several stages of development. Each stage is differentiated by the specific degree to which education was immediately dependent on work and the degree of coextensiveness with differences setting it apart from work and other forms of education.

In the immediate post-war period, vocational training developed largely within the framework of vocational schools operating either independently or within working organizations. The existence of pre-war traditions was a factor duly taken into account in the construction of such schools, a factor which only gradually was discarded. The elimination of the previous gap between education practised in vocational schools and the actual needs and requirements arising from work proceeded at a relatively slow pace. Under the legislation which remained in force up to 1949, pupils received theoretical instruction at school and practical training in the workshops of the enterprise. Practical and theoretical knowledge was acquired separately, and was independent of each other. To acquire professional qualifications, employed workers, just as young people, had to attend evening vocational schools offering primarily theoretical instruction.

Specific requirements associated with different jobs and the rising employment figures covering an ever larger section of the workforce, called for pre-employment training as a means of adaptation to specific operational conditions. This kind of adaptation took the form of initial 'on-the-job' training, practised during employment, at workshop level and without any major theoretical grounding.

The first decisive step forward was made in 1950, when special regulations were adopted in the sphere of vocational training. These regulations stipulated, apart from in-service training, instruction at secondary schools. Schools began to provide more thorough theoretical instruction thus offering the possibility to acquire broader knowledge bearing on a variety of fields. Workers attending such schools enjoyed a number of advantages which, together with the corresponding adjustment of the teaching programme, enabled them to complete study under conditions more favourable than in the past. Apart from this, all major working organizations began to organize numerous long-term training courses and seminars of a longer duration to train workers for the new responsibilities arising from technological change. This applied especially to workers new to the job.

Up to the 1960s, the development of training within the framework of working organizations was governed by the requirement accentuating the need for the imposition of better control on the existing state of affairs. With the exception of on-the-job training, activities of this type largely relied on social institutions. Workers' education was a matter relegated to schools and other educational institutions for the young people with, of course, a concurrent modification of curricula for topical needs and requirements. Teaching strategies likewise were adapted to the capacity of learners within working organizations. This task was later assigned to people's and, subsequently, workers' universities. These establishments frequently operated within working organizations through their respective branches so as to bring education within the reach of the workers and facilitate the mastery of the teaching programme. Short-term organizational forms clearly prevailed: courses, seminars, individual lectures or thematic lecture series.

The mid-1960s marked a period of transition towards systematic in-service training. This training had a restricted objective: the acquisition of certain skills and habits with only a minimum of theoretical grounding. This line of orientation was shaped by a number of factors. The most significant was the steadily progressing division of labour and specialization, the disparity between knowledge acquired at school and the specific requirements of production, especially ap-

parent in the introduction of an ever-broadening range of new technologies in industry. In particular, this was the natural consequence of the rising rate of employment and the drive for higher labour productivity achieved within the shortest possible period as well as the endeavour of working organizations to exercise stronger influence in the field of education.

A distinctive characteristics of this period was the need to implement vocational training through changes in the specific content. Voices were raised calling for the establishment of a more adequate relation between the theoretical and practical knowledge in the structure of vocational education and for a more thorough theoretical background. Such an approach ensures unity and coherence in the knowledge acquired and is of immediate relevance to a number of fields including natural sciences, social economy, humanities, as well as other areas of general cognition. Hence the link with practice and practical activities. Schools offering vocational training share close links with working organizations, so that training relates to specific areas and types of production. Special schools centres were established as common forms of training and further training. The centres were formed as an integral component within the framework of major organizations.

The 1960s highlighted the need for a well-advanced system of vocational training. The development of productive forces conditioned further changes in the social division of labour, organization of production and way of life. The number of new workers entering employment was steadily increasing. This is why the need for good organizational standards acquired topical relevance. Hence the special attention given by vocational schools for youth and adults to the significant, broader social function. School centres acquired special significance. In localities where there were no comparable establishments of this type, school centres are being set up within the framework of working organizations. Educational centres for workers came into existence to tackle tasks concerning workers' pre-service training and vocational further training.

The first centre of this kind was founded in 1956. Later on, the net-

work of such centres underwent rapid expansion. In 1959, the supreme social bodies issued a decree defining in detail the status, role, organization and management of such centres. Two functions were specified: the training of workers with no previous qualifications required for the exercise of duties and obligations arising from employment and the retraining and vocational further training of workers for enlarged responsibilities arising from the new production methods and procedures; the provision of theoretical and other knowledge essential for the job and for the broader ramifications of the specific working organization.

The expansion of the network of centres invigorated the institutional organizational structure of workers' training. Organization-based centres did not confine themselves to vocational training but encompassed other spheres of education including socio-economic, general and cultural education. It was especially in the years that followed that these centres asserted their role in the sphere of education and training for self-administration. It was becoming increasingly apparent that workers' participation in self-administration requires good standards of training not only in technology but also in management and utilization of the results of labour. As a result, these centres developed into the nucleus of general educational activities associated with the respective working organizations. The centres were associated with other activities courses, seminars, etc.) and with the social activity of managerial bodies, trade unions and other agencies. This specific role underlined the increasing differentiation between organizations that had such centres and those that had no such centres: where such centres existed educational activities grew in scope and format.

The development of school centres (encompassing the entire pattern of andragogic practice within the framework of a working organization) and centres for workers' training within the framework of working organizations brought a significant degree of consolidation into the general system of educational activities. To ensure the best possible organization, interdependence and linkage with the entire system, the All-Union People's Congress in 1960 adopted a resolution regulating the total pattern of pre-service educational activities.

Since then, the content of education has been developing on a more solid basis and has ceased to be restricted to purely vocational considerations. The emphasis is on the more general range of knowledge essential for the employed workforce.

Closer ties were forged between specific institutions; school centres increasingly assumed the general educational role for not only young people but also employed people. In cases where no such school centres existed, other centres for workers' education began to perform the same function. This gave rise to better cooperation between educational activities in working organizations and other forms of education organized by chambers of commerce, different institutions and public services, workers' and people's universities as well as other professional and social organizations within and outside the operational range of working organizations. At the same time, the role of the centres is steadily increasing. They are beginning to handle more challenging assignments such as introducing workers to production, apprentice training, the training of qualified and highly qualified workers as well as other activities essential in vocational training. Another area of centre-based activity covers retraining schemes and the organization of training courses for students entering production (practice), etc.

Ample scope was provided for cooperation between centres and workers' and people's universities. This stepped up the activity of such universities in training workers in one or more working organizations, provided they share a common interest in training for specific jobs and training centring on specific occupational profiles.

The period spanning the past decade was, admittedly, oriented towards a better implementation of such trends and tendencies. A number of school centres and centres for workers' education preoccupied themselves with expanding the network of different forms of educational activity within the framework of working organizations. The content of work had been significantly expanded, though vocational training remained the primary concern of general adult training.

Although a whole single decade was spent on the problem of growth in adult education, one could claim with full justification that all

this prepared the ground for the significant step yet to be taken rather than yielding results which in themselves represented a major step forward. This new step was taken in the 1970s, following the afore-mentioned all-union resolution on the promotion of education and training on a self-administrative basis. This resolution outlined the basic trend in the further development of adult education and training in its totality. Furthermore, it provided new insights into education in working organizations and the pattern of adult education in general. Adult education has thus been incorporated into the general system of education. It is no longer necessary to know who organizes certain teaching programmes but rather that such programmes represent - as to their content - a certain level of education, i.e. that education in working organizations has reached level comparable to the general standards of education.

This represented a major step forward both for the consolidation of activities in progress and for the degree of initiative characterizing new activities that envisage a broader linkage of work and education, and an even more constructive approach on the part of working organizations to workers' education. A definite end was put to the incipient dualism inherent in the system - the dichotomy between the school which educates people prior to work and education within the process of work. Education under employment begins to develop in its broadest forms and there is an ever stronger feeling of responsibility for the further promotion and development of such forms. The attitude of supreme political and social bodies towards the further development of education underlined the significance of centres, schools and courses within the framework of working organizations as well as their linkage with institutional forms of education practised outside the operational range of working organizations. Although this does not detract from the importance of other forms of education, institutional education acquired a specially significant role, duly reflected in its broadening scope and orientation.

Types and Stage of Development of Individual Forms of Education and Instruction in Organizations of Common Labour

A contemporary analysis of the organization of education and instruction in organizations of common labour (OCL), a new term for work-

ing organizations, reveals substantial differences between individual modes of settlement. This variety can be accounted for by a number of factors. The following can be listed as decisive: size of OCL, the structure of work in different areas of labour (the district, economic branches, etc.), the stage of development characterizing technology, the structure of cadres in macro and micro-units operating within working organizations, the economic situation of the working organization, the stage of development in self-administration, cultural, environmental standards, etc.

These factors likewise determine the type of relation between OCL and education and instruction. Larger and more developed OCL display a better organization of education and instruction matched by specific organizational forms, while in small-scale OCL, activities are less developed and the chief responsibility rests either with leading OCL bodies or with individual sections concerned with personnel management policies.

Educational Services. Major, well-developed OCL offer special services in the field of education. These constitute an integral component of personnel management and/or personnel management strategies. The personnel management section, acting as a specific executive body with regard to personnel management policies, exercises an impressive range of functions in the field of cadre training. The list of duties includes: ensuring sufficient cadres in compliance with the requirements of the OCL development plan; the selection of leading cadres; cadre-oriented welfare policies in the production sphere; the provision of good working conditions; the supervision of standards; decision-making in the sphere of social welfare, etc. One of the principal functions is to promote education and instruction.

Retraining courses and courses of further training are organized either within or outside OCL for new cadres that cannot be trained within the societal framework, and for cadres in need of retraining necessitated by technological change or new improved production procedures. As a rule, such training activities are organized within the framework of OCL, if OCL cannot ensure fresh cadre supplies from outside the enterprise or if there are no possibilities for "on-the-job" training. In other cases, OCL resorts to the provision of grants

drawn by the trainees, concludes agreements on training with other institutions concerned with further training, etc. Of late, OCL exercises major influence on societies for education (at a general level or within individual branches of production), on schools and the school system. At the same time, OCL is afforded generous scope to influence directly general educational policies and especially institutions and organizations concerned with workers' occupational profiles, i.e. cadres required in specific areas of production or in OCL.

All these activities, coming within the scope of OCL, are of primary concern to personnel management services and, in small-scale organizations where such services are non-existent, to general services. In large-scale OCL, special educational services operate within the framework of personnel management services. The function of such services is to plan and organize education on a coherent basis at all levels. Generally, the following areas are of immediate relevance: inquiry into problems concerning potential cadres in terms of occupational OCL profile; analysis of the needs and requirements affecting the training of cadres; consolidation of training plans and programmes; specification of the scope and content of such projects, etc. In this respect educational organizations within OCL or within organizations for education outside OCL, conclude agreements with workers' and people's universities, schools, employment services, enterprises, associations, etc. Finally, there are supervisory activities with regard to education. Apart from this general role educational services can exercise special functions pertinent to specific OCL.

The structural pattern of educational services varies according to the type of activity involved. In small-scale OCL, the chief responsibility for educational services rests with a single person in the personnel management department (special section) or with an executive competent to handle other matters affecting both personnel management policies and general activities. In large-scale, well-developed OCL, educational services are covered by a team of operatives. There is a good deal of streamlining within such teams, reflected in the division of labour: one section of the team is concerned with research, another section with planning and organization, etc. Such

teams may also be streamlined according to the type of target qualification (professional, socio-political, general cultural-educational, etc.).

The wider the scope of activity, the greater the autonomy of educational service, which gradually frees itself of assignments directly concerning the implementation of plans and programmes and forms an educational centre. In this case educational service continues (usually in cooperation with the centre) to implement projects designed to specify training needs and the occupational profile of cadres, whereas the spade work connected with such projects is done by the educational centre. This represents the most advanced form of cadre policy management as well as OCL-based educational policies.

We have no access to detailed data on the stage of development of individual forms of institutional education within the framework of OCL that would cover the whole of Yugoslavia. Joint statistical surveys have not included such data into the basic corpus comprising data on individual republics. To illustrate the point we shall therefore only adduce data specifically concerning Slovenia (see table). In view of the uniformity of our development, we can assume that a more or less similar situation prevails in the remaining republics. The data derive from the social activity programme.

According to these data, in 1975 72.97% of the total number of OCL in Slovenia still lacked a specially organized service or a special department for education (this applies to small-scale OCL which, to cover their specific educational needs, enlisted the help of institutions outside their operational framework, i.e. workers' and people's universities, schools, other OCL-based educational centres, etc.). In 27.03% of OCL, special bodies for education and instruction fulfilled this function (these included services, departments or even centres). In 9.94% of OCL, educational services were administered by one person handling at the same time other assignments; 9.52% of OCL had their own special section, 3.00% of OCL had to rely on the service alone (no centre), and in 4.56% of OCL, the service operated concurrently with the educational centre. The table indicates that the stage of development of such institutional forms depended in no

small measure on the specific field of social activity and that individual programmes displayed a varying degree of progress.

Types of Educational Centres. Organizationally, educational centres display considerable differences according to the type of function and the type of OCL and/or area of activity. Thus we may encounter well-developed centres, i.e. macro-centres and, vice versa, micro-centres with a staff capacity restricted to just a few operatives. Educational centres are also differentiated according to whether they provide training for young people or employed adults, and/or encompass schools (school centres for education) or whether they are solely preoccupied with further training of employees (centres for further training).

School centres for education integrate different sections, trends and levels of education and are formed within the framework of major OCL or associated organizations of common labour and/or within specific areas of activity. They usually integrate training and further training relevant to professions within a single sphere. They represent a unified type of establishments for general education pertinent to a profession, whether this entails education leading to a certain qualification level or education practised within the profession in question. A centre usually covers schools (secondary, higher education and university), courses, seminars and other forms of training and further training. In some cases, they act as totally independent organizations within the framework of an associated organization of common labour. This reflects their extended managerial role in educational policies, even though under such circumstances they coordinate their activities with the plans of the personnel management service. Rational coordination is indeed the uppermost consideration in activities of this type.

In cooperation with the respective agencies concerned, educational centres plan, prepare, organize and implement training and further training thus rounding off the entire educational cycle. They are authorized to issue not only internal but also external certificates, i.e. certificates with a general validity. Some centres concentrate on external certificates in their practice. Other centres may offer internal certificates. Of late work has started on building up a system

Table: Organizational Forms of Education in Organizations of Common Labour in Slovenia, 1977

Area of Social activity	Total OCL	Institutional organizations					
		Total	Centres for education	Educational services only	Department for education only	Auxiliary department only	No special organizational form
Industry and mining	100,00	31,72	8,88	3,34	11,81	7,61	68,28
Agriculture	100,00	22,08	1,29	2,59	5,84	12,36	77,92
Forestry	100,00	70,84	25,00	25,00	8,34	12,50	29,16
Building	100,00	36,02	8,60	4,30	12,90	10,22	63,98
Transport	100,00	51,50	10,30	9,87	21,03	10,30	48,50
Retail trade and catering	100,00	17,53	1,45	1,03	10,82	4,23	82,47
Crafts	100,00	18,31	2,39	2,03	8,47	5,42	81,69
Communal services	100,00	26,00	2,00	0,00	19,00	5,00	74,00
Culture, educ. and soc.activity	100,00	28,76	1,92	1,82	5,46	19,56	71,24
Social activity	100,00	20,71	5,43	4,23	3,76	7,29	79,29
Total	100,00	27,03	4,57	3,00	9,52	9,94	72,97

of certificates for specific forms of work, i.e. a system in which everything acquired within the process of education will receive explicit recognition. This will provide a more generous scope for horizontal and/or vertical mobility.

Centres for the education of employees are developing in major OCL, which possess no school centres and/or schools within their organizational structure. These centres are concerned with adult education and training covering both employed workers or people entering OCL. Though smaller in volume and capacity, such centres cover a variety of activities connected with training and further training in a way not markedly distinct from school centres. They promote vocational, socio-political, general and cultural education and instruction.

The reform currently in progress (for a more detailed discussion see below) involves the establishment of OCL-based centres of directed training of a unified type. Such centres will train cadres for professions and within professions, thus working towards the formation of a unified type of institution for general vocational training. This will further diminish the dualism between adults and youth in the sphere of education and instruction. The centre will be concerned with unified and life-long education.

The Volume, Types and Forms of Education in Organizations of Common Labour in 1975

We have no access to sufficiently complete and accurate data on the volume of activities in the sphere of education as practised by OCL throughout Yugoslavia. We shall therefore base our survey on illustrative data concerning Slovenia. Nor are these data sufficiently detailed from the point of view of classification taking the types and content of education into account. Classification here is too general to allow for a precise identification of the main types of activity.

The data provide no more than general information on the number of courses, seminars and lectures, the number of hours spent on education and instruction, the number of participants in courses of socio-political, vocational and general education (see table). Even so, the

data do provide an approximate picture of the wide-ranging activities bearing on OCL-based adult education.

Table: General Pattern of OCL-Based Education in Slovenia in 1975

Forms of education	Number of forms	Number of hours	Number of participants
Courses and seminars	5 377	551 525	63 967
Lectures	518	65 252	95 627
Total		616 777	159 594

Considering the fact that in 1975 the social sector in Slovenia covered 763 309 employed people, every 4th employee participated in activities associated with OCL and in many other activities organized outside the operational range of OCL.

An impressive number of courses, seminars and lectures took place and the number of hours spent on such activities runs into thousands (see table). The table indicates that most of these activities involved vocational training and socio-political education with only a minor representation of general education.

Other data available show that education is well-developed in precisely those areas of activity that are covered by the required cadres, i.e. areas where society's requirements with regard to further development were the most challenging. Nevertheless, we can detect a recognizably distinct tendency to make education the concern of OCL. Education acquires the character of a continuous activity practised during employment, a fact which of late receives increased attention on the part of society. This trend inspires a great deal of initiative reflected in the reform of the general system of education, currently in progress.

Table: Common Data on the Types and Forms of OCL-Based Education in 1975

Type of education	Courses and seminars			Lectures		
	Number %	Hours	Participants	Number %	Hours	Participants
Socio-political	719 13.37	1868 3.96	12222 19.10	1264 16.81	7515 11.51	34086 35.64
Vocational	4296 79.89	467069 84.68	48216 75.37	5653 75.19	54756 83.91	51942 54.31
General	362 6.74	62588 11.36	3529 5.53	601 8.00	2981 4.58	9599 10.05
Total	5377 100.00	551525 100.00	63967 100.00	7518 100.00	65252 100.00	95627 100.00

7. ADULT EDUCATION IN SOCIO-POLITICAL ORGANIZATIONS

Primary and Secondary Educational Activities

The preceding chapters attempted to provide a comprehensive description of the relatively well-established, systematic forms of adult education (three systems were discussed: workers' and people's universities, educational centres in enterprises, and school-based education in special departments for adults). The present chapter deals with yet another specific section of the adult education system which - though following the lines of relatively regular systematic activity - operates outside the framework of basic adult education establishments. This form includes a wide variety of educational events representing a secondary, but nevertheless a regular function of Yugoslavia's socio-political organizations.

Apart from the type of educational activities referred to above there are numerous non-systematic programmes open to adults in all towns and localities of Yugoslavia. There is no doubt about the fact that such educational activities associate more adults and more andragogues, active in adult education, than the comparable numbers of students and teachers within the framework of basic adult education establishments. For this reason, too, it is impossible to provide either a comprehensive or a detailed description of activities associated with the overall system of adult education in Yugoslavia. The boundaries between learning and other activities are far from clear - there is a good deal of functional overlap and interdependence. Education coincides with recreation and entertainment, with social activities, events and problem-solving in the sphere of family relations, etc. It would be difficult to specify with precision any type of activity involving man's acquisition of knowledge - whether voluntary or involuntary - bearing on this field of endeavour. We shall therefore confine our attention to specific forms and programmes of adult education still retaining the character of systematic forms of education

notwithstanding the fact that these are practised within the framework of socio-political organizations, where such activities are neither primary nor basic.

Tasks and Objectives of Socio-Political Education in Individual Phases of Social Development

Socio-political adult education practised within the framework of socio-political organizations represents a continuation of the intensove training and education programme initiated in the inter-war period, at the time when the Communist Party utilized the potential inherent in education as a special social force. During the war, this activity - despite adverse conditions - gathered momentum among the partisans. The ultimate aim of education involving the broadest strata of the population was to prepare the masses for the forthcoming political struggle and, later on, for the consolidation of people's power.

One of the first priorities our society was confronted with after the victory of the socialist revolution concerned the need for a more broadly based system of socio-political education. It was necessary to build up a new social order replacing the old order which had outlived its day, to bring the new values within the reach of the broadest sections of the country's population. Yugoslav citizens were to be briefed on the new tasks and objectives of the class struggle and the new social goals. The dovetailing of social and individual interests required thorough knowledge and nationwide commitment to society's common cause. It soon became apparent that roughly sketched goals of socio-political education in the initial post-war period could hardly provide the groundwork for an efficient implementation of the new programme. With each new advance brought about by the ongoing process of social development adult education of the day was faced with new tasks and requirements. With the emergence in the fifties of the first principles and forms of the self-governing social system, social development was to a great extent dependent on the proliferation of the knowledge required for efficient self-administration, the transformation and promotion of new attitudes towards social phenomena and relations. Instead of the one-time practice of

political upmanship involving individual decisions made on behalf of the nation, we were faced with the necessity of handling all matters of administration and management ourselves. Briefly - to stand on our own feet and to assume common responsibility - were the two uppermost considerations governing all our strivings in those formative years.

The gradual introduction of the self-governing system posed new, more rigorous requirements in the field of socio-political education. The possibility to act as an agent instrumental in the implementation of major social changes and transformations was open to every citizen, provided that he was fully prepared to bear the responsibility ensuing from this function at enterprise, district or local self-administration level. This type of training could not be obtained at primary school level due to the entirely new character of social phenomena and social development characterizing the self-governing system. Elementary knowledge of the principles and practices of self-administration was clearly called for. This applied to all sections of the population alike. The wide-ranging programme of socio-political education concerned with matters affecting self-administration enlisted the cooperation of all socio-political organizations in Yugoslavia: the Union of Communists; the Socialist Workers' Union; the Youth Organization; Trade Unions; the Union of Anti-Fascist Fighters (active members of the Yugoslav resistance movement during World War II) and the Red Cross (the numerically strongest organization in Yugoslavia which ranks among the most active organizations preoccupied with educational activities of this particular type). Adult education figured prominently among the principal objectives of each socio-political organization.

With the continuing development of Yugoslavia's self-governing socialist society, the requirements stipulated for educational activity acquired a new degree of specificity and explicitness. The early seventies saw the introduction of the 'delegate' system. In comparison with the former parliamentary system the 'delegate' system drew an unmistakably broader section of the population into active co-participation and decision-making concerning matters of self-administration. The introduction of the 'delegate' system was paralleled by the

adoption of a new constitution, new basic legislation and other legal documents and regulations that came into force in individual republics following a nationwide debate. According to the new constitution, the ultimate authority empowered to decide on the terms and conditions of work and the distribution of the results of labour - is the worker himself. Each citizen (and not only each delegate) was confronted with the necessity to acquaint himself with the main principles governing further lines of social development as well as principles implemented by interest communities organized on a self-governing basis, self-administrative contracts and agreements, principles governing occupational change and re-orientation, immediate change of job as well as other phenomena. At the time of the widespread social demand for better standards of socio-political education, established paths of the then valid system of education via workers' universities and socio-political organizations recorded a new degree of improvement. Each socio-political organization catered not only for general educational needs but also for the implementation of specific educational programmes coordinated with the organization's action programme and the education of young people. Yugoslavia's Union of Communists paid special attention to the education of new Union members.

Adult Education and its General Social Functions

The general social goal of adult education in Yugoslavia - the promotion of qualities distinctive of an allround development of a fully fledged socialist personality - constitutes the principal guideline for adult education in this country. Andragogic theory extended the scope of vocational training to other areas of human activity. Apart from training for specific occupations, it was envisaged that people should receive education accentuating socio-political commitment and the functions pertinent to man in society. This conception paid due attention to education in the field of culture and family life. The knowledge acquired was to embrace all areas of creativity, all aspects and qualities making up the content of man's creative work and creative transformation. Our overriding aim in day-to-day practice was to ensure - apart from vocational training and specialized education - the broadest possible expansion of socio-political education thus

extending the scope and format of andragogic theory. This could not have been achieved by sole reliance on what people learned with regard to their social duties and obligations or with regard to mere cultural participation. Systematic education practised within the framework of socio-political organizations confirmed - both where theory and practice are concerned - that today, man's education is not merely a matter of vocational training but has its equal relevance in other areas of creative activity. Adult education programmes reaching far beyond the frontiers of vocational training are clearly on the increase: in Yugoslavia this applies in particular to programmes ensuring good standards of training for self-administration at different levels of competence - in enterprises or in social organizations. The following socio-political organizations are concerned with off-setting the needs and requirements specific to training and education in the field of self-administration:

- The Union of Communists
- The Socialist Workers' Union
- The Trade Unions
- The Youth Organization
- The Union of Anti-Fascist Fighters
- The Red Cross.

Educational activities and programmes vary with the specific type of socio-political organization. The action programme of individual organizations accentuates the unification of the educational process within the organization in question. Such unification can only be achieved with considerable difficulty since a number of problems concerning socio-political education are handled at district and/or local level. This accounts for the heavy reliance of the programme on problems of specifically local interest. Joint programmes thus reflect the general stage of social development and the prospects ahead, social objectives, current value systems and normative regulations and modifications. Another area of topical concern involves standards of adult education in the field of Marxism. Marxism permeates all socio-political programmes specific to different schools and organizations. The syllabus of seminars and courses of study involves analytical study of the classics of Marxism. Of late, an increasing number of adapted editions of Marxist literature have been published to facilitate the

study of Marxist philosophy for learners with minor school qualifications. Such texts are specially adapted to suit the needs of adults who have a restricted educational background. Extensive commentary and footnotes make special reference to the ties between Marxist theory and topical problems affecting day-to-day life. Some publishing houses issue series specially designed for purposes of socio-political adult education.[1]/

Ideological and Political Education in the Union of Communists:

A special educational programme has been evolved for all new Union members. The programme is designed to provide information on the tasks and objectives of the Union of Communists as well as insight into its inner organization and basic activities. Apart from the acquisition of knowledge relating to different aspects of the Union's activity and function, emphasis is placed on educational strategies fostering political awareness and promoting the sense of responsibility and commitment with regard to fundamental social values, specific ways and means of stepping up active involvement within the party's membership base and outside the party's ranks - within the broadest sections of the population. Further education of Union members focuses on topical problems of political life with special emphasis on immediate problem-solving in individual thematic areas. Problem-solving of this kind involves an open exchange of views and opinions between long-standing Union members. The discussion touches on individual events of topical interest including both recent developments on the home front and international political relations. Detailed analysis and information is likewise provided in individual problem areas relevant to policy formulation and policy implementation. Pre-congress activities and related events represent the focal area of interest bringing a new degree of intensity into the Union's ideological and political programme. This is duly reflected in the special lecture series and discussions forming an integral part of Union meetings, sessions and

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[1]/ A good example of such editorial programme is the 'Social Education' series published by the Correspondence Workers' University and the Union of Workers' Universities at Ljubljana over the past few years.

other gatherings. Special seminars and other forms of adult education are organized under the guidance of the Union of Communists. The responsibility entailed in activities associated with leading posts and functions calls for increased initiative and systematic observation of contemporary political life on the part of all Union members.

Education practised within the ranks of the Union of Communists relies on other types of activity - the range is indeed impressive and all of them are specially designed for new Union members. The organization of special seminars and courses of study is an established feature of Union activities relevant to this category of membership. Other Union members participate in an equally broad educational programme including meetings, discussion fora, film showings, special columns in the daily press, etc. The aim of this type of education is to ensure standards of training which with regard to Union membership seen it its totality allows for a situation where each member "could formulate an answer to all topical problems affecting the country's social development", ensure a common line of action and continuity in development. "It is imperative to build up new relations, though their implementation is by no means easy - to overcome and discard old patterns and practices, though many of them are difficult to get rid of ..." Accordingly, one of the principal aims applying to all Union members alike is to strive for higher qualifications, for a truly creative and critical approach to social and political events and developments. The membership of the Yugoslav Union of Communists must display such standards of ideological and political education as are conducive to an optimal implementation of the tasks of self-administration and the political objectives of the policy programme of the Union of Communists."[4]/

The programme evolved for the attainment of the formulated tasks and objectives covers the following thematic areas:
- foundations of Marxism;
- theory and practice of the socialist revolution in Yugoslavia;

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[4]/ Ideological-Political Education in the Union of Communists of Slovenia, CZP Komunist, Ljubljana 1977, p. 7

- the promotion of socio-political and socio-economic relations following the adoption of the constitution and legislation concerning organizations of common labour;
- topical problems of economic and social policy;
- specific social trends and ideological movements;
- socialism as a world-wide process and international policies;
- aspects of civil defence;
- national security and social protection;
- ideological-political, organizational and personnel aspects of the consolidation of the Union of Communists of Yugoslavia.[5]/

The programmes specified above are implemented in a variety of forms. Basic knowledge and information is provided at "seminars for candidates of the Union of Communists and seminars for new Union members" (one year after enrolment at the latest data). At the next stage of inter-Union education, programmes are duly differentiated. The most numerous are "programmes for the basic organizations of the Union of Communists", evening political schools, three-month courses of study in the field of Marxism and distance courses of study concerned with Marxist philosophy. Apart from this there are "secondary political schools", representing an advanced form of instruction. Faculties of politology operate throughout the country - in all the republics of Yugoslavia. The Josip Broz Tito Political School at Kumrovec has a special position among political schools of this type. Intensive programmes of ideological and political education are under way at Marxist centres organized at different levels: at republic level - attached to the central committee, at regional level - within the framework of individual schools or universities. Marxist centres act in an independent or joint organizational capacity (together with faculties of politology) and are responsible for a number of special postgraduate courses of Marxism.

Pedagogues make use of various forms of instruction including lectures, discussion fora, etc. One of the deficiencies which continue to attract considerable criticism involves substandard methodolog-

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[5]/ Ibid., pp. 28-31

ical practices - a shortcoming which detracts from the overall efficiency and operativeness of such forms of instruction. Consequently, much is expected from the improvement and promotion of adequate standards of methodology.

Educational Activities Associated with the Socialist Workers' Union

The Socialist Workers' Union ensures optimal standards of socio-political education of the population. The Socialist Workers' Union envisages a form of education involving the participation of practically all citizens. The function of educators in this area of Yugoslav adult education is exercised not only by qualified teachers - specially trained for the job - but also by officials of the Socialist Workers' Union trained for this function at district and republic level. Major emphasis is placed on aspects of practice and the topical problems with which Union officials are best acquainted.

A good indication of the range of educational activities associated with the Socialist Workers' Union is provided by the impressive list of social categories specified in the "Agreement on the Implementation of Socio-Political Education" of 1976. [6]/

The formulation of programmes specific to this type of education involves the participation of:
- all workers associated in organizations of common labour;
- citizens in individual regions;
- members of socio-political organizations;
- members of basic organizations of the Union of Communists;
- members of the leadership of political organizations, social organizations and cooperatives;
- delegates of self-administrative bodies;
- citizens associated with bodies of civil defence;
- categories of the workforce handling special assignments (in the school system and abroad);

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[6]/ Socio-Political Education in the SRS (Socialist Republic of Slovenia), RK SZDL (Socialist Workers' Union), Ljubljana 1976, pp. 25-28

- pedagogical staff and andragogues;
- men and women (humanization of the relation between the two sexes);
- members of cooperatives;
- workers in agriculture;
- seasonal workers abroad.

Socio-political education in the Socialist Workers' Union pursues the following three principal objectives[7]:

- to "consolidate" self-administrative relations, friendship and unity of socialist relations in Yugoslavia and abroad;
- to broaden and enhance the revolutionary spirit and class awareness of the working people;
- to guide people towards a correct ideological assessment of each problem.

As to the structure of participants, the extensive programme of activity in the field of the Socialist Workers' Union programme is implemented by various bodies. The basic bodies acting in an operational capacity include the Union Republic Conferences of the Socialist Workers' Union in individual republics, district-based trade unions of the Socialist Workers' Union, self-administrative clubs, mass communication media and publishing houses. In special contingencies, individual assignments are handled by individual workers' universities, faculties, schools and educational establishments.

In view of the great number of lecturers and other andragogic staff involved in the broadly-based programme of educational activities associated with the Socialist Workers' Union, it is understandable that quality varies considerably - relevant here are established forms such as lectures and discussions. Other forms are relatively less employed and their application is a matter of individual initiative of the andragogic staff. We can claim with full justification that it is precisely in the sphere of methodology of broadly based educational programmes that adult education still leaves much to be desired. What we need in education and re-education is the formulation and application of

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[7]/Ibid., p. 5

special strategies that would combine practical instruction with educational activity.

Trade Union Based Education

Socio-political education practised within the framework of trade unions represents a special section of TU activity. Educational programmes organized by trade union organizations are designed for all categories of the workforce. There are special courses of study for managerial operatives facing different assignments and managerial problems at enterprise level. The staff includes TU chairmen and other officials active in district and republic-based trade union councils. The following are a few typical examples of TU involvement in the field of adult education:

- two-month political courses of study concerned with various aspects of TU activity and socialist self-administration:
- seminars for delegates of republic-based trade unions;
- seminars for leading officials in charge of recreation schemes at enterprise level;
- seminars concerned with young people's labour brigades;
- seminars for lecturers (staff);
- seminars for lecturers in Marxist study groups and clubs.

One of the relevant modes of proliferation of information concerning trade union activities in the field of labour and labour relations involves special journals and periodicals published by republic-based trade union councils. A natural counterpart to trade union press and journals are the numerous enterprise TU edited papers which carry regular information on specific aspects of problem-solving. In 1978 alone, the number of such journals in Slovenia amounted to 487. The forms and methods of TU adult education activity are similar to the forms employed by the previously mentioned organizations - the current mode of instruction involves lectures and seminars.

The Youth Organization

The Youth Organization administers its own educational programmes in cooperation with the Socialist Workers' Union. Special attention is paid to aspects of employment relating to the youngest section

of the workforce, to people who have completed compulsory school attendance and are introduced to the basic principles of united political activity. The overriding aim is to promote a truly scientific world outlook within the ranks of the country's young generation and acquaint young people with the fundamental values relevant to self-administration and socialist management.

The Union of Anti-Fascist Fighters

Relatively less concerned with matters of adult education is the Union of Anti-Fascist Fighters. Interest in adult education is understandably enough decreasing with changes in man's social position. Interest in adult education and the need for further education persists only in cases excluding sole preoccupation with vocational activities brought to a close with the Union members' retirement. The end of active service period naturally narrows down the possibilities for socio-political activity. What remains then are leisure pursuits and interests which, too, require further education, though outside the framework of socio-political organizations which are not concerned with activities of this type.

The Red Cross

Unlike other organizations and associations, the Red Cross is the most broadly based organization concerned not only with socio-political education but also with popular education in the sphere of public health, hygiene, prevention, etc. Lectures are organized very rarely but there is a wide variety of publicity materials including different hand-outs, posters, booklets, brochures and publications.

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In conclusion, suffice to say that socio-political adult education is seen in approximately the same terms of meaning and relevance ascribed to vocational training. Adult education in the field of leisure represents a less prominent area of endeavour in Yugoslavia's adult education system. A possible explanation is provided by the

fact that we have not yet attained a stage of development conducive to such activities on a broader organizational scale. The same applies to parent and family education as well as other specific areas of adult activity in Yugoslavia.

8. BASIC TRENDS IN THE REFORM OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

The attitude of supreme political and social bodies with regard to the need for a more thorough reform of the system of education (in particular, secondary school education) adopted in 1974 proceeds from the following considerations: the entire system is insufficiently developed to comply with all the requirements arising from work: there is a lack of balance and continuity within the system of education and instruction reflected in inadequate horizontal and vertical mobility especially at secondary school level (different types of schools: grammar schools, four-year vocational schools, three-year schools for qualified workers); the system is insufficiently flexible and impervious to new achievements in the field of science and technology; the linkage between individual elements of the system (teaching programmes) is inoperative; there are serious shortcomings in the organization of education and instruction. All this accounts for the fact that the system is insufficiently mobile, insufficiently democratic, inadequate and less rational. These considerations provided the basis for a reform of the entire system of education and instruction. The underlying idea was to bring the system closer to associated labour and ensure a more viable influence of the citizens, particularly the employed section of the civilian workforce, on the standards of planning and organization in education and instruction.

The new conception proceeds from the need to retain the present-day system of compulsory eight-year education and enhance its reliance on a more advanced system of education and instruction in the family and in institutions of pre-school education. Teaching programmes covering eight-year education should retain their unified character, although greater emphasis should be placed on general technical education and an approximation to the needs and requirements arising in the sphere of labour. Adult education covering those who have not completed basic eight-year education should in future be implemented in the form of teaching programmes which, though entailing

the same educational standards as those applied to youth, would display a higher degree of modification, i.e. the syllabus for each subject should comply more adequately with the psychological and social aspects characterizing an adult learner. In other words, instruction relevant to individual subjects should not entail all the information provided to young people but the focus should shift to teaching the most essential scientific laws and phenomena. Furthermore, aspects directly bearing on the profession in question should be duly incorporated into the teaching programme. Schools, in terms of the new approach, do not represent the [illegible] and only possible form of basic education. This principle will enable a more efficient participation of workers' and people's universities, of centres for education operating in working organizations, etc. in activities at the basic level of adult education. Once observed, this principle will likewise help to lessen the monopolistic role schools have so far played in this particular area. The unification of all possible forms of acquiring knowledge opens up new possibilities for self-instruction practised during employment on the basis of elementary education. The trend here is to recognize work at the elementary level according to the degree of mastery of specific teaching programmes, and/or according to the length of education. Almost all republics in Yugoslavia (the specification of teaching plans and teaching programmes is the concern of the republic bodies) have already adopted corresponding legislation governing elementary education. The new legislation replaces the previous Acts on the Basic School. This in itself may be taken as evidence indicative of further progress in the sense of de-schooling.

At secondary school level, the changes currently under way are even more prominent. Efforts are being made to eliminate the previous dualism specific to education of this type, a feature ultimately relatable to the existence of grammar schools and vocational schools. Grammar schools provided general education and were primarily oriented towards university entrance. These schools were mostly attended by students from families with an intellectual background and students belonging to the wealthier social strata. Secondary vocational schools (four-year and three-year secondary vocational schools) were geared towards the acquisition of qualifications suitable for immediate employment. This type of school was attended by young peo-

ple from working class families and the poor sections of the population. The system thus perpetuated social inequalities. As a result, education too contributed towards the separation of physical labour and intellectual activity. At present, work has started on the introduction of a unified type of four-year secondary school education. Two stages are envisaged. Teaching programmes covering the first stage (the first two years of secondary school education) centre first and foremost on general education; programmes relevant to the second stage are streamlined according to occupations and specializations. This means that everybody will receive the same type of education for intellectual and physical work. General education will thus be extended and encompass ten years (eight years of basic education and two years of secondary education). At the same time, teaching programmes will be more efficiently saturated with information directly relating to actual work. Conceptually, teaching programmes for the second stage of secondary education combine specialized instruction with theoretical instruction pertinent to different scientific disciplines, thus leading directly on to higher or university study. This process will be intensified in the years ahead. The future will see the introduction of a coherent system of four-year (two-year secondary + two-year higher), six-year (two-year secondary + four year higher) and/or seven-year (two-year secondary + five years of university) vocational education. Thus a closer liaison will be accomplished between secondary vocational and university education, between secondary economic and higher economic education, between higher economic and university education, etc. So far the gap between these levels of education has been very much in evidence. The system will likewise efficiently mitigate the reproduction of social differences. Consequently, the entire educational system will be put on a more democratic footing. Better conditions will be provided for horizontal and vertical transition. Moreover, the choice of a career will be postponed to a higher level of education (in the past - eight years of education; under the current system - ten years of education) and - what is perhaps most important - general education received at secondary school level will enable a more flexible change of qualifications, an aspect which is bound to acquire special importance in the prospective context of the ongoing scientific and technological revolution.

The new approach envisages the possibility that the student may interrupt his study, enter employment and resume his studies at a later date. Hence the requirement covering this contingency - namely that secondary education may be completed after a certain number of terms (educational cycle, blockwise) and that each block be terminated by a certificate. This would allow for an alternation of study and work at this level. The system will pre-empt any kind of repetition. This applies even to school-leavers who completed several grades at secondary school, though these do not count on the grounds that the student has not gone through all the stipulated exams (only basic education is recognized in such cases). Under the new system, it is irrelevant in which phase of man's life this educational cycle is completed. The specific level of education attained provides the basis for the subsequent level. Ultimately, this approach does away with the closed character of the previous four-year secondary school system. Secondary school education will thus acquire a completely new character. Complete secondary school education will be recognized after the completion of all levels.

Factors such as these will facilitate and enhance the horizontal and vertical development of the system. The system will become more democratic in that it will recognize knowledge acquired not only at school but also at work. This will provide conditions suitable for an early employment of young people. At the same time, conditions will be provided to enable them to continue studying, while employed and/or following a period of employment. The process will at the same time bring a new degree of acceleration into education received under employment (so-called recurrent education) and at work. Anybody who entered employment and for some reason left school can either resume his study or continue studying while employed. Another advantage the new approach offers concerns the possibility to steer clear of the previous practice of dividing qualifications into internal qualifications and external qualifications. The type of education provided within the working organization will link up more efficiently with education in general.

Proceeding from the concept of life-long education, the reform factually accentuates education acquired during employment, education

practised in relation to work and education received directly at work. This is a further important aspect of the process of elimination of the previous dualism in the system of education and training which separated adults from young people. Adult education and training will acquire the same value and significance as other forms of education and instruction and will ultimately become an integral part of the entire educational system. All this will provide conditions conducive to a situation where activities within the framework of institutions for adult education and training will successfully avoid teaching programmes virtually unrelated to the system. This will stimulate the adults' interest in further study. Equally, schools will gradually acquire the character of institutions for adult education. They will represent a common type of organization of education and training for adults and young people alike. Organizations of common labour (working organizations) are empowered to form their own educational institutions. They will, however, also influence institutions formed outside the operational range of working organizations primarily through the activity of specially constituted self-governing bodies designed to integrate work and education.

At the level of higher education and university education, the reform is still in its initial stage. So far, a more efficient linkage between such institutions and common labour has been achieved. Common labour has become a starting point for cadre planning and better occupational profiles. The focus is on organizing higher schools and schools at university level directly in common labour organizations. At the same time, due heed is paid to ways and means ensuring that all higher schools and universities provide a more efficient backing for education under employment, that they expand the traditional system of distance study and organize education covering the employed section of the students on separate lines. Consequently, an ever increasing number of higher schools and universities are involved in organizing centres for education in OCL or in areas where they could best cover the specific needs and requirements of such students. Educational centres enlist the assistance of university professors and lecturers acting in a consultative capacity once or several times a week - according to the teaching programme specified for employed students. This approach makes study considerably

easier, stimulates further interest and improves learning capacity. The time spent on study is significantly reduced and the results are more efficient. At present, some of our university centres cater for more students, who study while employed than for the normal type of full-time students. The number of such university institutions is bound to increase in future, provided that better organizational standards as well as an adequate number of university textbooks, teaching aids and other materials are ensured.

It is impossible to document - within the limits of this brief outline - all the major trends and tendencies arising from the current reform. It should be stressed, however, that the reform will highlight the importance of education under employment as well as the significance of recurrent education. One of the principal requirements will involve the need for a new and more precise delimitation of traditional institutional adult education within the system itself and its gradual transformation, although at present there seems to be no need for basic reorganization. The system of school institutions for adults will remain in operation in the years ahead but the focus will shift to a more efficient linkage with other forms of the school system and/or work. A further feature will involve the system of education via workers' and people's universities and the system of centres and other educational forms in OCL as the exponent of the institutional system of adult education. Prominence will be given to the current system of schools and other institutions for youth, which will play a relevant role in the field of adult education (the trend towards the establishment of joint centres of vocational training for adults and youth will become more pronounced; the first signs of this process are observable at present). University colleges will play a role of increasing importance. This will contribute towards a more efficient integration of such institutions with institutions for adult education, especially at a higher level. This process will further underline the importance of education in working organizations which - within the framework of the development of secondary schools, will also promote education at a higher and ultimately university level. The change outlined here are now well in progress. The advances made are especially apparent in the reform of secondary school education. All these are issues of considerable complexity, particularly in the

sphere of cadre policies. As to the material aspect, such changes are characterized by gradual progression. Last year saw the introduction of new educational practices according to the new teaching programme at secondary school level. It is expected that within the forthcoming two to three years, the reform will be extended to the entire system of education on the basis of the conception adopted. The period ahead will necessitate more significant results in the implementation of the reform in the sphere of higher and university education. We are aware of the fact that all this implies a long-term process. We therefore regard the current approach as an experimental one. Nevertheless, the approach is well-defined and applied in practice with an adequate degree of consistency. Suffice it to say that we do not regard the results attained as final. They should rather be seen as a viable basis in the quest for better and more operative future alternatives.

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